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Some Relations between Archaeology and History

BY PROFESSOR IDA CARLETON THALLON, VASSAR COLLEGE.

The following suggestions on the relation of archaeology to history discuss only a small part of the material at our disposal and also consider the question entirely from one point of view. No attempt is made to touch upon the question of the value of archaeological studies in general, but merely their relation to history, with the artistic value of archaeology introduced in a most incidental way. Even with such a limitation, the subject is almost boundless.

Fortunately the day is past when the enthusiastic archaeologist in the flush of his newly discovered science proclaims that the smallest material remains are worth pages of literature in helping one to comprehend the life of the ancients, or when the student of literature or history with the text of the classic authors before him feels nothing but lofty scorn for the battered fragments, often most insignificant in appearance, which excavations have brought to light. The archaeologist who would define his subject in the broadest terms as "showing man as a rational human being in reference to others of his own race or other races" would by the very breadth of his definition include history as a part of archaeology, but he would set before himself a task so great that he might well despair even before he began, and of late archaeology has wisely confined itself to "the science of the treatment of the material remains of the human past." Of all people the archaeologist must realize that he cannot be sufficient unto himself and that without the vivifying power of literature and history his discoveries have the value only of disconnected facts. Archaeology supplies us with the material remains, but history supplies the vital spark. To take a classical analogy: we might build up out of archaeology a structure as beautiful as the statue of Galatea, but it would still be a statue, cold and lifeless, until history breathed into it the breath of life. Truth compels us to admit that the reconstructed statue would not always be beautiful, not always complete, and that we might often be sorry we ever made it live; it might spoil some of our pet theories or destroy some cherished hypothesis, but it at least would have reality. And surely our whole aim in the study of antiquity, be it literature, art, archaeology or history is to make the ancient world live again and give up to us as many as she will of those secrets which made her what she was.

In discussing the subject of archaeological material at the disposal of the historian, we may consider first the kinds of materials available, second, the appli-

cation of this material, and third, the results of this combination; or to put it in another way, how historical methods applied to the interpretation of archaeological material add to our knowledge of antiquity.

In the bewildering mass of objects at our disposal we must bear in mind that nothing is too great, nothing too trivial to deserve attention. The obvious importance of such remains as the great Roman Wall built across the boundary of Britain, that Wall which Kipling in "Puck of Pook's Hill" has pictured so vividly to us as keeping out the Picts and beyond them the "Winged-Hats," may blind us to the fact that they differ in extent but not in kind from the humble potsherd or the broken statue. Sometimes the most unpromising objects or the most ugly battered fragments, discarded and thrown into the rubbish heap, may give exactly the information we need on some point, while a beautiful statue, perfectly preserved and delighting our eyes as it did those of the Greeks, may be of value only to the special history of art. In other words, the artistic and the archaeological value of an ancient monument by no means coincide in all instances, and the very fact that a thing has been broken, sometimes by accident, sometimes by design, and afterwards discarded, is of the greatest help in indicating a change of dynasty, government, or race. To take a specific instance of the last case, in the cave at Vari on Mount Hymettus many fragments of bas-reliefs representing a dance of Hermes and the Nymphs were found with the heads missing. The condition of the rest of the reliefs shows that these heads have been broken off on purpose by the blow of a hammer or some such instrument and gave clear indications of the iconoclastic tendencies of the early Christians whose occupations of the cave were shown also by numbers of terra-cotta lamps stamped with Christian symbols.

It is obvious that archaeological evidence is distinctly first-hand and contemporary. Occasionally an archaizing wave rather like the pre-Raphaelite movement in painting came in, as for example in the first century B. C.; or there was a revival of antiquarian research such as occurred in the time of Hadrian, but the finds generally bear on themselves the marks of identification. The occurrence on an inscription of certain letter forms which were known to have been in vogue during certain years, the stamp of a certain magistrate upon the surface of a coin, all allow us to date within narrow limits the time at which these objects were made.

The evidence of archæology is usually genuine as well as contemporary. Sometimes a forgery will be put forth of so skilful a kind as to deceive for a long time, so skilful that even specialists will not always agree as to its authenticity, but it is in the minor arts like jewelry and gems that forgeries are most likely to escape notice. Few false inscriptions escape the keen eye of the epigraphist, false coins are recognized by the student of numismatics, and it is practically impossible to foist a spurious vase upon one whose experience extends beyond the most superficial knowledge. As for the difficulty of passing off a copy of a Greek statue for an original, we need only recall the much advertised "Aphrodite of Praxiteles" exhibited in New York a few years ago, and the consequent amount of comment and discussion on both sides of the matter.

These few examples which have been chosen to show two very important qualities of the nature of our archæological evidence have also suggested the kinds of material at hand. Chief among them are the remains of architecture, sculpture, inscriptions, coins, vases, with the incidental knowledge of painting inferred from them, and the so-called minor arts including jewelry, gems and small bronzes. There have purposely been omitted from this list the manuscripts of ancient authors, works in which the style is as important as the substance, and which, therefore, may be classed as literature, although it is true that many of these have become known to us through the results of excavations.

Now, just as we found that the archæological and the artistic value of a monument was not always the same and that the most unpromising object often proved to be the most valuable, so we find that the relative value of these kinds of evidence varies in different periods. In fact, some are not found in certain periods at all. The earliest Attic inscription to which a date can be assigned belongs in the seventh century B. C. It is true, however, that an elaborate system of writing prevailed in Crete in the second or third millennium B. C., but as yet these inscriptions have not been read. Remarks about inscriptions will be confined to those in the Greek or Latin language. The coins form another body of evidence which in Greece go back no earlier than the seventh century B. C. It was not until recently that we knew much about the sculpture and paintings of the early periods. Our knowledge was confined rather to the smaller objects found in the graves. This is still true to a great extent for the early history of Italy as we shall see later.

With material remains of these kinds at our disposal we should next see in what way historical methods will aid us in their interpretations. The systematic study of archæology is a comparatively new science. Earlier excavations were generally the result of lucky chance and were conducted in the spirit of the spoiler looking for loot. The best things were carried off, the others were left to disappear gradually or were thrown into confused disorder. Perhaps such excavations happen occasionally even

now when an ignorant peasant stumbles upon some tomb or grave, but the model archæologist is careful to note the position and level of each find, nothing is unconsidered and no detail is regarded as unimportant. In archæology as in history the collection of material is thorough, exact, suppressing nothing and adding nothing. We are able to relate finds in one excavation to those of another and by inductive reasoning to arrive at a general conclusion based on these facts. The importance of comparative methods and the value of cumulative evidence for archæology cannot be exaggerated. It is rarely safe to draw a definite conclusion from one single piece of evidence. The archæologist must not be too eager to jump at conclusions. It is only through constant practice in the weighing of evidence, in reconciling apparent discrepancies and above all in maintaining an impartial and judicial attitude of mind that the best results can be obtained. But added to this there must be imagination, that instinctive insight which enables us to rise beyond the mere facts themselves and to infer from them general truths.

If we apply this spirit, critical and at the same time sympathetic, to the interpretation of the material we found was at hand, the results appear to be of two kinds, first, where archæological evidence supplements our knowledge of history, second, where archæology supplies the chief evidence. Certain examples will make this clear.

Perhaps it is as well to begin with the inscriptions since they are written documents and thus closely akin to the written documents we know as history and literature.

Even from the form of an inscription we learn a good deal about history. We know that certain cities of Greece used alphabets which included letters distinctly characteristic of those cities alone, so that on the basis of the alphabet used on an inscription we can generally tell its origin. Moreover, the use of the same dialect in inscriptions of different peoples often proclaims their kinship. In general a colony as might be expected carries over both the alphabet and the dialect of the mother city.

The great mass of Attic inscriptions has made it possible to date any inscription to within a few years, chiefly by means of the forms of the letters which changed little by little until in 403 B. C. the Ionic alphabet was officially adopted by the Athenians.

As to the external form of the inscriptions, we should mention the recurrence again and again of certain formulaic phraseology found in inscriptions from all parts of the Greek world. This shows that in spite of the isolation of the different states there were many ideas and customs common to all, they were all Greeks, differ as they might among themselves. The converging of their worship into great centers is simply another illustration of this.

When we pass from the form to the contents of the inscriptions the difficulty of selection becomes still greater, but they may be divided roughly into those which deal with domestic or with foreign affairs and administration. Most of the illustrations

chosen supplement the statements of the Greek historians.

In the whole history of Athens there is perhaps nothing more tragic than the ill-fated Sicilian Expedition, no time when hopes rose to a greater height, only to be overwhelmed in utter destruction. Thucydides (III, 86) speaks of the first interference of the Athenians in Sicilian affairs when, at the invitation of the Leontini and the people of Rhegium, they were persuaded to send ships to aid them against Syracuse. Two fragments of inscriptions recording treaties between the Athenians and these people, probably refer to this incident.

Sometimes, however, we have no historical background into which to fit the archaeological evidence. For example, the famous inscription in very archaic characters giving terms of a treaty between the Eleans and the Heræans at some time between 550 and 500 B. C. cannot be referred to any alliance of which we have further information.

The colonization of outlying lands began at an early time among the Greeks and was always a conspicuous feature in their public economy. Many inscriptions about colonies are extant, and, as would naturally be expected, they follow rather closely the policy and organization of the mother city and are sometimes responsible to her. A well-known inscription refers to Brea, one of the Thracian colonies sent out during the administration of Pericles. Provisions for its connection with Athens are shown in the appointment of a board of overseers, in contributions to the Athenian festival and in the reservation of temple funds.

To turn now to Greece in foreign relations other than friendly, we find a most interesting monument erected to commemorate a great victory in war. The traveller Pausanias (X. 13, 5.) during his visit to Delphi saw an offering from the battle of Platea which he describes as "a golden tripod resting on a bronze serpent." He says, "the bronze part of the offering is preserved to this day, but the Phocian captains did not leave the gold in quite the same condition."

The bronze part remains to the present time, but not *in situ*, for it was removed by Constantine to his new capital where it may still be seen in the ancient hippodrome. To speak more accurately, the column part is formed of three intertwined serpents on whose coils are now written the name of those people who fought at Platea and Salamis. Even before its long voyage this column had an interesting history. We learn that Pausanias, the Lacedæmonian general, caused to be inscribed upon it this arrogant epigram: "Pausanias, as general of the Greeks, after he had destroyed the army of the Medes, dedicated this monument to Phoebus."

This epigram which was composed by the poet Simonides and which is found in the anthology as well as in Thucydides, Demosthenes, Plutarch and others, caused such indignation that the Amphictyonic Council had it erased and had inscribed on the column

the names which may still be read there. A new epigram was composed as follows:

"The saviours of spacious Greece dedicated this (tripod),

Having rescued the cities from hateful slavery."

The originals of both epigrams have been lost, probably the second was written on the stone pedestal and possibly the first may have been, although some think that it was engraved on the coils of the serpent and afterwards erased. But the settlement of that question does not seem very important in comparison with its interest as an example of the poem of one of the famous nine lyric poets, preserved in the anthology, quoted by the historians and inscribed on this very monument.

This inscription is in Laconian characters, but as a general thing we have few inscriptions of the Spartans compared with those of the Athenians. It is to Attic inscriptions that we turn for most of our information regarding the administration of affairs. The so-called "Tribute Lists" record the sums given or due from the dependent states of the Athenian Empire. Our information about the list of states, the years when they belonged, the amount of tribute paid, and many other details is drawn very largely from these documents.

Such records as the inventories of the treasures stored in the Parthenon or in other buildings give us an idea of the wealth of the state, and other inscriptions telling of the borrowings from these funds in time of need show that the function of the temple treasure-rooms must often have been very like that of our banks of the present day.

The Greek love of good form is seen in the reports of special commissions appointed for the performance of special duties. There are inscriptions referring to the construction of all the important buildings on the Acropolis, in some of which the expenditures are recorded down to the last obol, even broken columns are accounted for.

The foregoing examples will perhaps show a few ways in which our knowledge of Greek history has been aided by the study of inscriptions, but in the case of Roman history they are far more frequently our only source of information particularly during the empire. In the time of the later republic the literary evidence is abundant and the archaeological evidence meager, but in the empire after the best and earliest years the literary sources become more and more inadequate while the inscriptions multiply at an enormous rate, and so it is largely through them that we are able to trace the gradual development of the policy and administration at a period when we have no Tacitus to consult. And this knowledge has come as a result of careful and painstaking collating of many small things trifling in themselves, but contributing each in its own way to the general result.

It has been already suggested that coins are an extremely valuable source of information since they too are official documents, of a standard weight

adopted by the issuing power, bearing on their surface the type or arms of the city, and often countersigned by the magistrates in charge of the mint, often of great importance on the artistic side and occasionally signed with the name of the die-engraver. Since coins are small and easily transported they were carried about from place to place and are thus one of our most useful sources for trade-routes and ancient commerce. They afford clues not only to commercial but to political relations. The alliance of certain cities is shown by the use of coins based on a common standard. In the Greek world there were three standards, and if we find one used in widely scattered places it is reasonable to infer that a common medium of exchange was desired. Another way of showing an alliance is by combining the types of the two allied cities, one on each side, or by issuing federal coins as was done by the Arcadian and Achaean Leagues each of which had a common mint which supplied the same coins to all the federated cities.

Coins were often made in commemoration of some great event, and one of the best illustrations of this is the four-drachma piece struck in 306 B. C. by Demetrius Poliorcetes after his defeat of Ptolemy. On the prow of a galley stands a Victory blowing a trumpet, an interesting reproduction of the famous Niké of Samothrace now in the Louvre. It is only one of the many coins which reproduce famous works of art, but we can rarely connect such coins with any historical event.

The evidence of the vases is of a somewhat different nature from that of inscriptions or coins, for as has already been suggested those are official documents bearing the stamp or seal of authority, while the pottery brings us into much closer touch with the everyday life of the people. They bear about the same relation to the inscriptions and coins that familiar personal letters bear to dignified state documents or to formal literature. Even the inscriptions upon some of them show the personal idiosyncrasy of the writer either by the peculiar shape of a letter or the distinctive style of spelling whether it be simplified or phonetic. These inscriptions indicate that certain changes in letter forms are of gradual growth and become more and more general until the stamp of official approval is set upon them.

The very fact that these vases do not represent the official expression of the state gives them a point of view at once more personal and more ingenuous. The representation on a vase of a merry party of drunken revellers, singing and dancing through the streets, may refer to that same incident in the cheerful career of Alcibiades of which we are told in the pages of Andocides or of which we learn the official penalties in the inscriptions concerning those involved in the mutilation of the Hermæ. It may refer to no such definite incident, but the painter would not hesitate to treat the subject in that spirit. Very few scenes on the pottery can be referred to any particular historical event, and yet it is true that the Greeks had a number of historical paintings, such as the Battle of

Mantinæa and the Battle of Marathon in certain colonnades at Athens. Judging from the description, these combine fact and fiction in pleasing variety, since Miltiades appears in company with Athena and Heracles.

This illustrative quality is by no means the most important function of the vases in their relation to history. Perhaps their greatest service in this direction has been in dating sites discovered. We have already seen that inscriptions can be dated with approximate accuracy and would therefore be a good guide, but let us picture to ourselves a site belonging to the period before inscriptions were in general use, a simple grave, perhaps, where we have no architecture or sculpture to help us in assigning a date, where the weapons and instruments may belong anywhere within the bronze age, and it is in a case of this sort that we turn to the vases or even fragments. Again and again we find that it is from the heaps of rubbish composed largely of little scraps of pottery that we determine when a certain civilization flourished, for though a vase may be broken to bits it is almost impossible to destroy the fragments unless they are ground to powder since they are impervious to the effects of dirt or moisture. Bronze lying in the earth may become so corroded that it is practically impossible to restore, or it may yield only to frequent soaking in diluted acids, but the vase rarely needs more than a good scrubbing in water to make it intelligible. The systematic establishment of this chronology is of recent date and has now been built upon a firm basis. As excavations progress, we note the discovery of new styles, some of which fit into the general framework, others of which seem to strike out in new lines, but the problems still left to settle are those of style-development and mutual influences rather than dates. The question naturally arises "How has this chronology been built up?"

Sometimes we are fortunate enough to find several settlements one on top of another and then the only question is "How much earlier was each of the lower strata?" By gradually using the known as a touchstone for the unknown our field of knowledge widens and the dates of certain periods may be fixed with greater accuracy. The whole Attic chronology has been revised within the last couple of decades in the light of certain definite information. For many years it had been known that the Attic ware in which the design was painted in black on the light clay background (technically known as the black figured ware) preceded that in which the design was left in the clay color and the background was painted black (red-figured ware). The logical progress of design from stiffness to greater freedom made this plain, but at what date did the red-figured ware first come into importance? The old theory suggested that it was introduced after the Persian Wars at the time when Greek art in general advanced with such great strides. But at the time when the Athenian Acropolis was excavated down to bed-rock, there in the strata of rubbish by means of which the surface of the rock was

built up to a level platform for the rebuilding of the temples destroyed by the Persians in 480 B. C., were found many fragments of the red-figured style of an advanced kind, showing that at least a generation must have been necessary for its development and pushing the date of its introduction back to the latter part of the sixth century. The inferences drawn from the results of this excavation form one of the cornerstones for the dating of Greek vase-painting and whenever pottery of the style of the Acropolis fragments is discovered it may safely be assigned to this period.

Most travellers to Greece try to visit the site of the battle of Marathon, the vast plain bounded by the mountains and the sea whose level surface is broken only by the single mound erected over the Athenians who fell in battle. And the very simplicity characteristic of a noble achievement is well symbolized by the finds within this mound which consisted of little beside the bones of the heroic dead and the broken vases buried with them. With a single exception these belonged to the black-figured style, and as we know that the mound was erected in 490 B. C., we have evidence that even several years after the introduction of the red-figured ware the black-figured continued in use for funeral purposes. The abrupt abandonment of one style for another was hardly to be expected, particularly as we know that certain painters used both styles on the same vase.

It is impossible to speak even in the most cursory way of the historical evidence from sculpture and architecture. The Greeks did not have the habit of historical representation such as the Romans used on their triumphal arches or columns. The tendency of Greek art was symbolic rather than pictorial, the commemorative statue serves not so much for the glorification of the giver as for an offering to a god, the dedications out of the spoils were always to Phoebus, to Zeus, to Athena, or to some other god as the case might be, the reliefs were generally parts of temples and as such embodied myths of the gods or of those heroes whose deeds were of such ancient fame that they belonged almost to the mythical period.

In general, the foregoing illustrations have shown how archæology supplements history and how the two encourage and stimulate each other. The student who has before him a picture of the lion erected at Chæronea over the tomb of the warriors slain there, or who holds in his hand a coin bearing the head of Alexander the Great will be less likely to regard history as merely a succession of dates, and archæology as a dull science about dug-up rubbish.

The divorce of the two is impossible, but sometimes it is one which takes the lead and sometimes the other. Archæology has to be our chief guide in cases where the written records are inadequate for one of these reasons: because records of a kind we can read were not yet in existence, because the history of a certain nation was not put together in connected form, but furnishes only isolated information regard-

ing their relation to other peoples, or because a place was unimportant and chiefly of local fame.

Until within a few years the prehistoric period was rightly so-called. We knew very little about it, the literary traditions were extremely vague, the statements very general and there was no way of confirming or disproving existing literary authorities. The passing references in authors like Thucydides or Herodotus were regarded as blind gropings in a vague mist into which the light of research was unlikely to penetrate. The poems of Homer were interpreted in various ways, ranging from those who like Schliemann retained a childlike belief in the absolute literal truth of every word to those skeptics who should have taken for their motto the famous recantation addressed to Helen of Troy which begins, "This is not a true story; you never embarked upon the ships with their banks of rowers, nor did you ever go to the towers of Troy." Archæology beginning with the brilliant finds in the excavations at Mycenæ in 1876 has laid before us a picture of a civilization corresponding in many respects to that of Homer, though in some ways still more wealthy and splendid than that described by the poet. The recent excavations in Crete have brought to light a civilization antedating that of Mycenæ, and except for the gorgeous gold work Crete was far more sumptuous. A whole vast wonderland of art has been revealed to us, and from the great palace at Cnossus we find innumerable frescoes showing the life of those days, sculptures, stone-carving, and thousands of clay tablets which have not yet been deciphered but which show well-established systems of writing hundreds of years before our first inscription in Greek characters. These discoveries in the very stronghold of King Minos go far towards confirming the statement about the Minoan sea-power made by Thucydides (I, 4). Crete is not the only land which has furnished new evidence, though the splendor of the discoveries there overshadows other achievements, but further investigations throughout the Aegean islands have enabled us to reconstruct an outline picture of the pre-Mycenaean civilization to which new elements are being added from day to day.

The prehistoric period of Italy is known to us almost entirely from archæology. We have no Italic Homer to describe the glories of the past age, almost no literary evidence beyond the most general statements. The late development of Roman history did not encourage researches into the remote past. Italic prehistoric archæology is still in its infancy and offers some of the most fascinating problems in the history of antiquity. It is in the solving of problems of this kind that the archæologist finds his greatest opportunities for constructive work and at the same time the greatest pitfall for the unwary.

A further illustration of how archæology is our chief guide may be seen in the case of the Etruscans. These people belong to the historic period, but they have no connected history; here and there we glean facts about their relations to other peoples, but it is no less true of them than of Hannibal that their his-

tory has been written chiefly by their enemies. We have their written records, but we cannot read them, the Etruscan language is still a puzzle, and with the exception of a few proper names or simple common words they are absolutely undecipherable. And so until a new Rosetta stone turns up, we are almost as badly off as if we had no inscriptions. The racial problem is still a matter of controversy. And yet there are few people with whose national life we are more familiar because of the monuments they have left behind them. Through these we can trace the life of an Etruscan from the cradle to the grave, from childhood through manhood in its manifold relations at work, at play, in a private or in an official capacity, all forming a picture as complete as any we have of Greece or Rome. Their foreign relations are known to us largely through archaeology. There must have been some close connection with the Orient, as the numerous finds attest, then came a period of Greek influence. The familiar story of the migration of Demaratus of Corinth with his sons to Etruria is confirmed by the quantities of Corinthian pottery in the Etruscan sepulchres; that she must have stood in near relation to Athens is shown by the enormous number of Attic vases found in the tombs.

As a final illustration the sanctuary of Despoina near Lycosura in Arcadia has been chosen because it affords such a good illustration of the value of cumulative evidence. Our only literary authority about the sanctuary was Pausanias who describes in detail the buildings and other monuments within the precinct, as well as the group of statues made for the temple by Damophon of Messene. It was with Pausanias as a guide that excavations were undertaken in 1889 by the Greek Archaeological Society and the discoveries are a striking proof of his accuracy and reliability. He describes the sanctuary as in a flourishing condition in his time (the middle of the second century A. D.), but does not say when it was established. For many years the date of Damophon of Messene had been one of the problems of archaeology. Pausanias seems to have been particularly interested in him and mentions several of his works which were set up in various cities, among them Megalopolis and Messene, his native town. At Messene there was a group representing, among others, Epaminondas, and the City of Thebes which was the work of Damophon, though Pausanias expressly states that Epaminondas was the work of a different artist. The natural inference was that the grateful Messenians erected the statue of Epaminondas in honor of his services in the battle of Mantinea and on the occasion of the founding of Megalopolis in 370 B. C. For these reasons Damophon was generally assigned in most books on sculpture to the fourth century B. C. The excavations brought to light statues of a style utterly different from what might have been expected. The statues did not look like fourth-century work, and the excavations had shown that the lower parts of the temple and the base made for the statues were undoubtedly contemporary, therefore, any definite information about one

would apply equally to the other. Critics were divided into three camps, most of them basing their arguments on the style of the statues, those who thought the statues "couldn't possibly be Greek" and who, therefore, assigned them to the period of revival under Hadrian; those who dated them in the second century B. C.; and those who dated them in the fourth century B. C., either because of the style, or on the historical grounds mentioned above. There was no difficulty in disproving the first view, so it need not be discussed. Since the evidence as a whole had not been considered it seemed desirable to reconcile if possible the historical and archaeological views which appeared to conflict.

Investigation of the historical side showed that though the inference in favor of the fourth century was the natural one, the condition of the cities in which the works of Damophon were set up was such as to warrant the erection of these statues in the second century, that there was plenty of evidence both architectural and epigraphical for the restoration of Megalopolis after its destruction in 222 B. C., and that the cities mentioned above were very prominent in the Achæan League of the second century.

The archaeological evidence consisted chiefly of the architecture of the temple, and of inscriptions discovered in the precinct. The temple was found to belong to any time from the fourth to the second centuries B. C., and so was no more conclusive than the historical evidence, but admitted two possibilities. The inscriptions belonged with a single exception from the second century B. C. to the second century A. D., and if the precinct had existed as early as the fourth century, it would have been strange that no earlier inscriptions came to light.

In confirmation of this date were several inscriptions (from Megalopolis and Olympia) about a school of sculptors who flourished at Messene in the second century B. C., and at Messene were found fragments of second century inscriptions, one of which bore the name of Damophon in almost complete form, the other in a mutilated state. Therefore it was natural to conclude that the establishment of the cult and the date of the statues was the second century B. C.

This shows on a small scale the importance of every little bit of evidence, and that often it is not until the structure is nearly built up that we realize what it will prove to be.

Thus we see very clearly that the history written at the present day must differ greatly from that of even thirty years ago. But the history of the present day cannot be final, for new material is constantly coming to light. This is both discouraging and encouraging, for often what appears to be an excellent solution of a problem is disproved by the discovery of new material, while on the other hand, the very thing needed to throw a flood of light on an uncertain point may turn up at any moment. But more important than the settling of any single question is the fact that archaeological discoveries make dogmatic statements impossible, make us keep an open mind, and prevent that enemy of progress, stagnation.

The Study of the History Lesson

BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

A recent careful scrutiny of the status of history in the high schools of the State of Wisconsin and a comparison of the findings thus obtained with those resulting from a similar investigation of ten years ago show conclusively that the subject of history has gained quantitatively in that period. More courses are offered in it and more pupils are taking it than ever before. As in Wisconsin, so it appears, is its status generally throughout the country. Qualitatively, however, the situation is not so satisfactory. As the results of the examinations conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board show, there has not been a corresponding increase in these years in the power of the history teacher to secure those values which the subject is good for. All of us who have had opportunity to evaluate the product of history-teaching through observation in the high school or through contact in college with students who have been trained under it know well that, while some excellent results are being achieved, more in this than in the older subjects of the curriculum there is much ineffective effort.

It is, of course, to be expected that the languages, mathematics, and the natural sciences should have attained a degree of effectiveness of method, of excellence in the tools for teaching, and of definiteness of content that history has not yet had time to reach. One feature of this superiority in method that the older subjects possess is that the teachers of them have learned to expect and know how to obtain proper study from their pupils; with very many teachers of history, on the other hand, the pupil's study of the subject is identified with the reading over of the lesson, and so the teacher's expectation of the pupil's effort and industry has to be satisfied with an inadequate form of intellectual labor.

Years ago some of us tried to find in high school text-books, made up entirely of extracts from source material and thus embodying the laboratory or source method, the solution of our difficulty, for one undoubted virtue of these books was that to get his lesson from them the pupil had really to work, had to buckle down and dig. But this expectation was not realized in the judgment of most of us because time, adequacy of source material, and sufficient intellectual maturity on the part of the pupil were all found to be lacking, and so while the study of source material still retains an important place, the principal reliance of the teacher is again the narrative text-book. In brief, the reading that the ordinary high school pupil does is still not effective study and does not secure adequate results. How far from adequate this is as preparation of his lesson can be appreciated by a consideration of what it means in terms of intellectual effort for the pupil to learn his history lesson from his text-book.

Of course, in the first place he must read in the endeavor to get the meaning of his text-book sentence by sentence. But this for many, undirected and unstimulated, is an unachieved aim through their scantiness of vocabulary and their habit of skipping new words or guessing at their meaning.

In the second place, the ideas these sentences convey have to be associated together, the necessary inter-relations must be made in order to secure an understanding of the paragraph or sections of which they are parts. And this understanding progresses as connections are established in the pupil's mind not only with kindred elements in the paragraph but also with related knowledge already in his possession. This possessed knowledge of his which has possibility of contact and connection with aspects of his history lesson is very comprehensive, for it includes what history he has hitherto learned, what he knows of kindred subjects, of current happenings, of facts of his social environment, of facts of his own experience. Incorporation of the new ideas into this body of knowledge is a necessary part of the learning process. Moreover, it is highly desirable that such connections shall be set up between aspects of the subject and the pupil's nature that he shall feel himself personally involved, shall discover that there is in it worth for him individually and so shall become genuinely interested in it.

But these new ideas are not yet adequately grasped, for paragraph has relation to paragraph, and the history lesson as a whole must have correct organization in the pupil's mind. That which is most important must bulk so for him, and the subsidiary must take its due place. Those features of the subject which act as causes must be understood in their casual relations, and those that are results must be recognized as such.

For thorough understanding, then, these other intellectual activities must be set up which function in analysis, comparison, evaluation, and grouping. These various operations of the mind have been referred to as though they were consecutive; in point of fact they may, of course, be in considerable degree simultaneous. The order of their progress is, however, unimportant in this discussion, which seeks merely to emphasize their existence as essential elements in the learning process.

Imagination is another intellectual faculty that must be stirred to action, so that the breath of life may seem to be in the historic personalities and the spirit of reality in the events, and that the truths of history may be given "warmth and intimacy;" for, as the Report of the Committee of Five insists, "the learning of history is not attained by any unreal and impersonal treatment of institutions and processes." Not only is it the fact that truths are felt

when apprehended by imagination's aid and are thus deeply impressed on the mind, but it is also true that only when the imagination is at work are valuable products of history study created; for in the soil of the emotions social sympathy starts and ideals germinate and grow.

Memory also is an element of learning and the very study processes that seek to promote the feeling and full understanding of the truths of history tend to secure their retention in the mind. Yet, though to understand and to feel frequently induce remembering, memory must often be directly and explicitly bidden to perform its part of the learning process, and self-directed drill must be reckoned an element in history-study.

It is plain from these considerations of what it means to learn that the study that is fruitful is both a complex and an effortful process. Of course, the pupil is and should remain happily ignorant of this complexity. Not so his teacher.

Learning requires of the pupil active intellectual effort, in other words, hard work, of which mere reading of the lesson is but the beginning. Hence, there devolves inevitably upon the teacher the twofold responsibility of stimulation and direction of this work. The assertion of William James that the American boy and girl enjoy effort, desire to work, is confirmed in the experience of thousands of teachers. But knowing ones who have observed boys and girls studying history have often seen that they struggle vainly to discover what it is that they are required to learn, and that they fail to set in motion the activities that are essential to learning. Neither motive nor guidance has been adequately supplied, and by motive is not meant fear of penalty nor ambition for high grade; there must be provided such invitation to effort, such challenge, such call to come out and fight as the pupil receives from the problem quality of the tasks which his teachers of other subjects set for him, a quality in which explicitness of requirement and definiteness of aim are important elements. It will, then, be a distinct advance in the teaching of history if into the preparation of the lesson real study activities can be introduced, and this can be effectively achieved only by giving the history task in large measure the problem quality.

The educational values of history being many in number and various in kind, the forms of problem will be correspondingly varied. When the training of the judgment or the exercising of the reasoning powers is what the teacher is seeking to secure for his pupils, analysis and organization of the lesson in whole or in part according to a plan supplied, or questions involving comparison, causation, and estimate—as of the value of an historical source—are appropriate forms for the task. When an appreciation of the relation of points of the lesson to facts of other lessons is sought for, the problem should be explicitly directed to that end. Where the topic of study is highly abstract, the problem should be set in such terms as will bring concrete examples into the range of the pupil's thinking; with the unfam-

iliar it should involve inquiry into possible analogies with the known; if the topic seems to lack the quality of reality and vitality, the problem should seek to put the human element into it.

The task of the teacher in preparing himself for the giving out of next day's lesson is thus twofold; first, after acquainting himself thoroughly with the content of the material in which the lesson is to be set, he must ask himself, "What are the values in this that my pupils must be sure to acquire?" and, secondly, "In what form can I put the task of securing these so that it shall be explicit and as concrete as possible—so that they shall see clearly what is to be done and be stimulated to do it?"

By the thought questions and problems, then, of various sorts, which will take shape through this endeavor of the teacher, the pupil will be carried behind the words and induced to think. His reading of the lesson will no longer be an end in itself, but a means to the performance of tasks which the teacher's assignment has made clear and sufficiently alluring. Reading is now the beginning merely of a study process that goes much further into the field of intellectual activity and involves all the faculties of his mind. Thus, it may be brought about that in many more schools than at present, lessons in history shall be "taken as seriously and studied as intelligently before coming to class as those in Latin or in mathematics."

The following tasks set upon a part of the administration of President Monroe may serve as illustrations of some forms of this problem-setting:

What had been Monroe's political career before 1816?

What presidents had heretofore come from Virginia? Account for Virginia's being "the mother of presidents," and, as Monroe was the last, for her ceasing to be.

Account for the decline of party spirit by 1820.

In what ways did the new spirit of nationalization express itself during this administration?

In 1820 Jefferson wrote, "The judiciary of the United States is the subtle corps of sappers and miners constantly working underground to undermine the foundations of our confederate fabric." What did he mean and what warrant did he have for his statement?

What were the general principles laid down in these cases:

McCulloch versus Maryland,
Fletcher versus Peck,
The Dartmouth College Case?

Give four important instances in previous history of clash of opinion as to the authority of the central government.

Prepare a brief sketch of the history of East and West Florida—1763-1819.

Add to your progressive map the new states admitted in this administration, and the new territory acquired, putting in the new northern boundary line of 1818 and the Cumberland Road.

Increasing the Functional Value of History by the Use of the Problem Method of Presentation

BY W. PRESCOTT WEBB, HIGH SCHOOL, CUERO, TEXAS.

My object in this paper is to indicate how the functional value of history may be increased by the introduction of a new method of presentation. By this method many of the objections to the study of the subject and difficulties of the teaching of the subject may be partially or wholly eliminated. The plan of the paper divides the treatment into three parts. The first part seeks to show that the present high school methods of presentation are wrong psychologically and behind-hand educationally and historically; the second part takes up the new or problem method, defines and analyzes it, and gives numerous concrete examples of its application; the third and last section summarizes the advantages of the problem method, and seeks to show how it will increase the functional value of the subject.

PART I—PRESENT METHODS.

Psychology teaches us that the mind in its development passes through three more or less well defined stages. The first is that of perception, in which the facts are gathered, in which the material is assembled which is to be used all through later life; the second is a short transitional period. It may be called the period of apperception and imagination. The third and last is the critical stage in which causes are sought and proofs established.

Professor Karl Pearson, in his "Grammar of Science," points out that the sciences have passed through these three stages and that they have arrived only recently at the critical state. In fact, it is held that modern experimental science is itself the third stage of the development of civilization—the critical phase of growth. Mankind in its infancy was perceptive and curious; in youth it was metaphysical and imaginative, soaring far away from the facts which were observed, and reaching conclusions which were unjustified and without proof. In the third period there has been a return to the material world. Fine-spun theory has given way to demonstrable facts, and scientific laws have been established on a critical basis. The result has been a tremendous stride in nearly all fields of activity. Pragmatism has supplanted metaphysics in philosophy; critical study has displaced blind and unreasoning faith in religion; and the wonderful discoveries and inventions of the past century are the fruits of the modern experimental method in science.

Not only is it true in general of the mental development of the individual, and of the historical development of the entire race, that three stages of growth are experienced, but it is true of any particular mental task that we undertake—any study that we pursue. The French scholar, Ribot, in his book

on "The Imagination" shows that any mental activity followed to completion takes a triple form, the last of which is critical. He terms the critical imagination the "Scientific imagination," and devotes an entire chapter to it.

To make the example concrete: Suppose you are assigned a paper to write, by introspection you find yourself going through the following activities: First, you gather material, read and take notes, and fill a card catalogue with numerous facts pertaining to your subject. This is the perceptual, the material gathering stage. When your reading is all done, and the facts all at hand, you enter the imaginative stage in which you visualize the method, the place, and the results. You imagine far greater results than you ever attain perhaps. You are somewhat metaphysical. Finally, you come down to pen and paper, and then you must become critical, using this fact, discarding that, keeping only those things that will best serve your purpose. You are now in the final process of selection and rejection, the critical stage.

It is a matter of surprise that this critical phase which is recognized by psychology as the final stage of mental development, which dominates modern philosophy, and constitutes science, should not have been recognized earlier in the study and teaching of history. It has been recognized and used in the study of history, but not in the teaching of school history. The explanation probably lies in the fact that practice lags behind theory.

It was Professor Keatinge of Oxford who pointed out that three stages of history teaching may be distinguished, corresponding to the mental development of the boys. The first period, from seven to twelve years of age, is that of perception and memory on the part of the student, and of presentation and drill on the part of the teacher. This is the preparatory period in which material is gathered. But the eternal gathering of material is uninspiring, and in the end grows irksome; by the time the boy has reached the age of twelve, something more must be added, or else he comes to consider history a drudge. He now enters the secondary stage, *i. e.*, from twelve to thirteen or fourteen. During this period he should be making a transition from the preparatory to the critical stage. He must try to use his information. This is the time for the teacher to arouse interest and excite the imagination. But something more must be given soon, or the boy will come to look on history as a "soft snap," interesting enough if the teacher has personality, but unworthy of that serious consideration which the stern subjects of algebra and physics compel. So much for the secondary

stage. The third, or upper secondary stage, may be called, with some apologies, the critical stage of historical growth. It should last from fourteen to the end of high school, and subsequently through life. At this time a new method should be introduced. *The method of natural science should be carried over into the field of social science and applied to the study of history.* This method of presentation is known as the problem method, and will occupy our attention throughout the remaining pages of the paper.

Before making an analysis and exposition of the problem method, it will be well to indicate the methods now in use, to point out the criticism they are bringing on the subject of history, and to show that they are not wrong in their place, but merely fall short of the demands of the times.

It is a trite fact that in no field of activity are we such victims of tradition and outworn custom as in the school. Professor David Starr Jordan, in his "First Steps of Civilization" has said that if we wish to find relics of primitive man, we should consult three sources; viz.: The graves of the dead, institutions of the church, and the customs and habits of woman. He might have added that if we wish to find relics of medieval man, we should consult the school systems. The schools have been exceedingly slow to change from the ancient to the modern. Whereas in medieval time, education was for the chosen few, the priest and the scholar, to-day it is for the many—the laborer and the professional man. Whereas formerly it was an end in itself—for a few people; at present it is a means only—for the many, a means without which they can scarcely survive.

School men have at last recognized the demand for the change, and have widened the curriculum to include the sciences and industrial arts. The marked tendency of the present is to introduce those things that function in the life of the student, and to exclude all those things that fail to do so. All know how the classics have suffered. Not a few lovers of Greek and Latin have been alarmed that their subjects are giving away to the less artistic but more practical subjects of agriculture and manual training and domestic science. But the pragmatist in education has said: "Give us something that will work, something that will serve the daily needs of life. Latin and Greek do not function enough. Away with these traditional subjects of the priest and the pedant." And in spite of their claims to practical value as a mental discipline, the classic studies have been relegated to the background somewhat on the charge that they fail to function.

And what of history? Has it, as one of the traditional subjects, escaped the grave charge?

By no means has history escaped. Is history being challenged to-day to show that it has functional value? The answer is an emphatic affirmative. Does history recognize the challenge? If so, is it making any effort to meet the charge? History does recognize that its functional value is being questioned. To prove that it does and to indicate the effort it is making to defend itself, I call your attention to the sub-

jects of the papers presented at the recent meeting of the Texas History Teachers' Association, and ask you to note the recurring emphasis placed on the term "functional value."

(1) The functional value of high school history from the standpoint of information and discipline.

(2) Increasing the functional value of history by omitting the useless memory data.

(3) Increasing the functional value of history by the problem method of presentation.

Why has the charge been preferred against history? Is it because history fails to justify itself as a subject of intrinsic worth? Not at all, we believe. On the value of history, Professor Keatinge has well said: "It is not easy to make a brief statement of the advantages to be derived from the study of history. Without some acquaintance with origins no man can understand the civilization into which he is born, and not understanding it, he will take no interest in its problems. . . . Lack of interest in human factors is a serious deficiency, and its seriousness is especially felt in a modern self-conscious democracy." (Keatinge, "Studies in the Teaching of History," p. 4.) Everyone realizes the truth of this statement. The individual must not only be conscious that problems exist, but he must have definite views on them, views that are based on knowledge, and not on dogmatic belief or traditional prejudices. The citizen of to-day must solve problems—whether he be ignorant or learned. He must go to the polls and vote for or against the referendum; he must decide whether we should have high tariff or free trade, when in ignorance of the origin and effect of either. He will boldly criticize the president of a great nation for his action in foreign affairs without one whit of knowledge of international law and custom. He decides that the United States should seize Mexico or should abandon the Monroe Doctrine all in a breath. Surely such responsible action ought to have a rational rather than an emotional guide. And if the voter's action is to be rational, it must be based on knowledge, and not on prejudice, bias, or the inflamed statement of some political demagogue. A knowledge of political and national institutions sufficient to enable the citizen to cast an intelligent vote, means a knowledge of history. Surely the subject justifies itself in our materialistic curriculum on the one ground that it prepares the citizen to be more than a mere "political animal." Again in addition to its worth as a preparation for citizenship, history, as a cultural subject, stands on a par with the classics.

If we admit then that history has in a democracy a practical value equal in importance to science, and a cultural value comparable with the classics, why is it that we are having to make a defense of our subject? If the fault is not in the subject itself, it must lie in the method of presentation—and here seems to rest a part of the blame. Science is experimental and critical, rather than theoretical; philosophy is pragmatic rather than metaphysical and dogmatic. Both of these are in the third stage of their develop-

ment. History teaching, on the other hand, has lagged far behind and remains to-day in the first two stages. *We teachers are following medieval and ancient instead of modern methods of presentation*, and this fact accounts for the charges we are having to meet.

Let us consider the methods that are most widely employed. The first is the factual, which makes the study of history a work of pure memory, the cramming of many facts, and the arrangement of these facts on a chronological time line, attached to the line by meaningless dates. The second, and somewhat preferable method is that in which the teacher does the explaining, clarifying, and expounding. Both methods fail from the standpoint of educational psychology. The first because it fills the boy's mind with a mass of isolated facts, unrelated to experience or to one another. The second method fails because it does not require the self-activity of the student. His mind remains passive, and no mind ever developed while in a passive attitude—it must become active and aggressive. Education may be defined narrowly as a series of mental victories, and we cannot think of a victory—mental or physical—as being won with the victor in a passive state.

Each method is used by a distinctly different type of teacher. The first—the factual—is too often the instrument of torture used by the incompetent or indolent teacher. It is for him the line of least resistance. It leaves the student with a feeling that history is a dry dead subject full of drudgery, impossible to remember, useless intrinsically, powerless to function in the affairs of daily life. The second method—the explanatory—is too often a means of amusement used by the over-enthusiastic and inexperienced teacher to arouse in the students a momentary emotional glow, which soon dies away into inactivity. The student may be pleased, but he has not been strengthened or trained, because he has not been exercised. It leaves him with a superior feeling that history is rather interesting, almost equal to the picture show in that respect, but as a school subject not worthy of his serious consideration. It is his "crib course"—a "soft snap." These methods as given are not faulty within themselves, but their weakness lies in the fact that they are used long after they should have been supplemented. They may be employed to splendid effect in the preparatory and secondary periods of the boy's school life, but they are not suited for the upper secondary.

PART II—PROBLEM METHOD.

The question arises immediately: What method should be employed in the upper secondary stage? We remember that this should be the critical stage, and the method used should correspond with it. By this, I mean that the method of science—experimentation—shall be taken over and applied, with some modification, in the field of history. The history room would be converted into a historical laboratory where historical problems are solved and historical facts discovered and principles deduced by the students

themselves. By the adoption of this method history would take its place in the curriculum as one of the social sciences as contrasted with natural science.

But the difference in the data of the two sciences is very great, and the nature of the data in history makes the study of history by the laboratory method very complex. In natural sciences of the inorganic type, such as chemistry and physics, the data are fixed and the conditions invariable. Certain phenomena are due to definite causes and produce definite results. In the organic sciences, such as botany and biology, the data are more variable and the results less definite. In the social, or super-organic sciences, such as history, sociology, and psychology, the data are still more variable and the results still less definite. Thus we see, that as we proceed from the lower to the higher forms—from the inorganic chemical reaction on one extreme to the super-organic mental reaction on the other extreme, we find our problem of science becoming increasingly complex. Whereas in the inorganic science the data of the experiment may be exactly reproduced, in the organic experiments only partially reproduced, in the social science it cannot be reproduced at all. Whereas in the natural science the facts are in hand for the experiment, in the social science of history only a record of the facts is available, and from these records the facts must be reconstructed, and the causes established as best they may be. This is an extra step not required of the natural scientist, and further complicates the problem of the historical student.

It has been stated that the data of history are the records of the facts. These records are of two kinds: Those left unconsciously and those left consciously. (See Keatinge's "Studies in the Teaching of History.") The first embrace language, institutions, and burial remains; the second includes pictures, chronicles, calendars, and other documents. These things, mostly documents, would compose the apparatus, as well as the data of the historical laboratory. The memory work and the explanations and the lectures by the teacher would be supplemented with problems in which the students are set to find the results and to give the proof of their finding. This is much better than having the results given them ready made.

Professor Keatinge divides the evidence to be obtained from any document into two parts: (1) external evidence, dealing with the admissibility of the document and the reliability and truthfulness of the author; (2) internal evidence "which is concerned with the relation between the data and the facts." It is with the internal evidence chiefly that the high school student would have to deal, because he is furnished with books or leaflets of contemporary documents, called source books, and now used mostly for atmospheric purpose.

By giving the boy an original document, and a formal problem to solve, you provide him with a definite task, which excites his respect, if not his admiration. It sets his mind to work, it gets his attention and interest, and when he discovers his solu-

tion, he thrills with the exultation of a mental victory. He is led to the point of reasoning out his own results and conclusions. In the science laboratory he combines two chemicals and observes certain reactions; in the social complex, he sees the birth of a new event, a record of which he has in a contemporary document. What will be the effect of the new member on the social body? How will the other members be affected by the new comer? *E. g.*, gunpowder was discovered; how did it affect medieval conditions, economic, social, military? Printing was invented—what was the social reaction?

So much for the theory of the problem method. A prominent historian of this State, writing of the problem method has said: "Most of the writers on method avoid saying much on any one thing, and particularly are careful to be vague."¹ In order to escape this charge of vagueness, I am going to present some of my own efforts in the use of the problem method. I have tested it in ancient history in the eighth grade, English history in the tenth grade, and American history in the eleventh grade, and have obtained excellent results in every case.

My plan is to have the students bring their documentary source books to class without telling them what assignment I would make. No problem was assigned, however, that had not been covered fully in class and in text. The problems may be written or oral. If they are to be written each student is provided with slips of paper 4 x 6 inches in size. These slips were procured from a printer at a trifling cost. They have a double value of giving uniformity to the work and of enabling the teacher to look over the results very rapidly. The students are asked to write their own name on one corner of the card and the author's name on the other. I shall take up the work in ancient history first and then proceed to the higher grades. The results are those actually obtained in class.

The first three problems are related to each other, and go to show clearly how the work may be made progressive. The three, taken together, show the historical development of the Athenian Constitution from before the time of Draco, when Athens had a king, until the time of Clisthenes, when she had a pure democracy. The first problem calls for an analysis of the constitution before the time of Draco; the second deals with the rise of democracy through the code of Draco, the reforms of Solon and the reforms of Clisthenes; the third is a study of the motive Clisthenes had in giving citizenship to the common people.

PROBLEM I.

FROM ARISTOTLE'S CONSTITUTION OF ATHENS.

From this document the following things were required:

(a) To make out a list of the officers of the Athenian government.

- (b) To give the duties of each officer.
- (c) To give a quotation in proof of the statement.

THE ANCIENT CONSTITUTION OF ATHENS.

Aristotle, "Constitution of Athens," Chapter 3 ff. Kenyon's Translation.

Now the ancient constitution as it existed before the time of Draco was organized as follows: The magistrates were elected according to qualifications of birth and wealth. At first they governed for life, but subsequently for terms of ten years. The first magistrates, both in date and importance, were the King, the Polemarch (commander in war), the Archon. The earliest of these offices was that of the King, which existed from ancestral antiquity. To this was added, secondly, the office of Polemarch, on account of some of the Kings proving feeble in war, for which reason Ion was invited to accept the post on an occasion of pressing need. The last of the three offices was that of the Archon, which most authorities state to have come into existence in the time of Medon. Others assign it to the time of Acastus, and adduce as proof the fact that the nine Archons swear to execute their oaths "as in the days of Acastus," which seems to suggest that it was in his reign that the descendants of Codrus retired from the kingship in return for the prerogatives conferred upon the Archon.

Whichever way it be, the difference in date is small, but that it was the last of these magistracies to be created is shown by the fact that the Archon has no part in the ancestral sacrifices, as the King and the Polemarch have, but only in those of later origin. So it is only at a comparatively late date that the office of Archon has become of great importance, by successive accretions of power. The Thesmothetae were appointed many years afterwards, when these offices had already become annual, and the object of their creation was that they might publicly record all legal decisions, and act as guardians of them with a view to executing judgment upon transgressors of the law. Accordingly, their offices alone of those which have been mentioned, were never of more than annual duration.

So far, then, do these magistracies precede all others in point of date. At that time the nine Archons did not all live together. The King occupied the building known as the Bucolium, near the Prytaneum, as may be seen from the fact that even to the present day the marriage of the King's wife to Dionysus takes place there. The Archon lived in the Prytaneum, the Polemarch in the Epilyceum. The latter building was formerly called the Polemarcheum, but after Epilyceus, during his term of office as Polemarch, had rebuilt it and fitted it up, it was called the Epilyceum. The Thesmothetae occupied the Thesmotheteum. In the time of Solon, however, they all came together into the Thesmotheteum. They had power to decide cases finally on their own authority, not, as now, merely to hold a preliminary hearing.

The Council of Areopagus had as its constitutionally assigned duty the protection of the laws; but in point of fact it administered the greater and most important part of the government of the state, and inflicted personal punishments and fines summarily upon all who misbehaved themselves. This was the natural consequence of the fact that the Archons were elected under qualifications of birth and wealth, and that the Areopagus was composed of those who served as Archons, for which latter reason the membership of the Areopagus is the only office which has continued to be a life magistracy to the present day.

Here is an example of what was done by one student:

¹ Dr. Frederick Duncalf, University of Texas.

ATHENIAN CONSTITUTION.

The officers of the Athenian Constitution were:

1. King.
 - (a) Qualifications—birth and wealth.
 - (b) Duty—ruler.
 - (c) Quotation—"Existed from ancestral antiquity."
2. Polemarch.
 - (a) Qualification—warrior.
 - (b) Duty—commander in war.
 - (c) Quotation—"Added on account of some of the kings proving feeble in war."
3. Archons.
 - (a) Qualification—birth and wealth. They were supposed to be the wise men of that time.
 - (b) Duty—that they might publicly record all legal decisions, and act as guardians of them with a view to executing judgment upon transgressors of the law. They had to swear to execute their oath.
4. Council of Areopagus.
 - (a) Qualification—had to be Archon first.
 - (b) Duties—with quotation—Protection of the laws and saw that they were obeyed. The Council of Areopagus had as its constitutionally assigned duty the protection of the laws; but in point of fact it administered the greater and most important part of the government of the state, and inflicted personal punishment and fines summarily upon all who misbehaved themselves.

This problem brings out clearly the form of the Athenian government. Next comes the reforms which mark the rise of democracy. This problem was taken from the text and not from the source book.

PROBLEM II.

Show the growth of democracy in Athens from the time of Draco to the time of Clisthenes.

Draco was a noble, and he was appointed to make a code of laws for the Athenians so the common people would not revolt. He was appointed by the nobles, and did nothing but put the harsh laws in writing. The lower classes were given no right, and the laws were said to have been written in blood.

Solon, after the war, turned his attention to giving the common people freedom. He cancelled all debts, and made it illegal to take even a plebian as slave. He gave the lower class a right to vote, but not to hold office.

Clisthenes led the common people against the nobles for their rights. The commons won. Clisthenes then made a more democratic constitution. He conferred citizenship on all the free inhabitants of Athens.

In the time of Solon the people had no rights. Solon gave them the right to vote, and kept them from becoming slaves, and Clisthenes gave them all the rights of any Athenian.

PROBLEM III.

The next problem deals with Herodotus's account of the reforms of Clisthenes, and is concerned with the motive of the reformer. The pupils are apt to think that Clisthenes was a philanthropic individual who was aroused by the spirit of human sympathy to strike for the freedom of the oppressed. Herodotus's account shows that his motive was purely selfish.

HOW ATHENS WAS GIVEN A DEMOCRATIC ORGANIZATION BY CLISTHENES AND TRIUMPHED OVER HER NEIGHBORS.

Herodotus, Book V, Chapters 66-77. Rawlinson's Translation.

The power of Athens had been great before, but now that the tyrants were gone it became greater than ever. The chief authority was lodged with two persons, Clisthenes, of the family of the Alemaeonids, and Isagoras, the son of Tisander, who belonged to a noble house. Howbeit his kinsmen offer sacrifice to the Carian Zeus. These two men strove together for the mastery, and Clisthenes, finding himself the weaker, called to his aid the common people. Hereupon, instead of the four tribes among which the Athenians had been divided hitherto, Clisthenes made ten tribes, and parceled out the Athenians among them. He likewise changed the names of the tribes; for whereas they had till now been called after Geleon, Aegicores, Argades and Hoples, the four sons of Ion, Clisthenes set these names aside, and called his tribes after certain other heroes, all of whom were native, except Ajax. Ajax was associated because, although a foreigner, he was a neighbor and an ally of Athens.

Having brought entirely over to his own side the common people of Athens whom he had before disdained, he gave all the tribes new names, and made the number greater than formerly. Instead of the four phylarchs he established ten; he likewise placed ten demes in each of the tribes, and he was, now that the common people took his part, very much more powerful than his adversaries.

THE REFORMS OF CLISTHENES.

Aristotle, "Constitution of Athens," Chapters 21-22.

The people, therefore, had good reason to place confidence in Clisthenes. Accordingly, when at this time he found himself at the head of the masses three years after the expulsion of the tyrants, in the archonship of Isagoras,² his first step was to distribute the whole population into ten tribes in place of the existing four, with the object of intermingling the members of the different tribes, so that more persons might have a share in the franchise. From this arose the saying, "Do not look at the tribes," addressed to those who wished to scrutinize the lists of the old families. Next he made the Council to consist of five hundred members instead of four hundred, each tribe now contributing fifty, whereas formerly each had sent a hundred.

PROBLEM IV.

1. (a) Why did Clisthenes make his reforms in favor of the common people?
- (b) Give quotation as proof of your statement.
2. (a) Name the classes in the Athenian state, according to the document.
3. Account for the fact that Clisthenes changed the number of tribes from four to ten, and gave new names to all.

ANSWER.

1. (a) Clisthenes had to make his reforms for the common people in order to get them to help him in his struggle with Isagoras. He did it to get help against his enemy.

² 508 B. C. He introduced a large number of new citizens by the enfranchisement of emancipated slaves and resident aliens. It would have been difficult to introduce them into the old tribes, which were organized into clans and families on the old aristocratic basis; the new tribes had no such associations.

(b) Quotation—"These two men (Clisthenes and Isagoras) strove together for the mastery, and Clisthenes, finding himself the weaker, called to his aid the common people. Now that the common people took his part he was very much more powerful than his adversaries."

2. The Classes in the Athenian state:

1. (a) Nobles.
(b) "Isagoras who belonged to a noble house."
2. (a) Common people.
(b) "Clisthenes called to his aid the common people."
3. (a) Slaves.
(b) "He introduced a large number of new citizens by the enfranchisement of slaves."

3. By making all the common people and slaves citizens. It would have been difficult to introduce them into the four old tribes, which were organized into clans and families on the old aristocratic basis. The new tribes had no such associations, and he wanted to intermingle the members of the old tribes with the new so that all would be citizens alike.

PROBLEM V.

THE BATTLE OF MARATHON.

The problem here was taken from Herodotus's account of the battle of Marathon, and is said to be the only account that is in any way reliable. The students were asked to read the manuscript, and then make a diagram of two positions of the opposing armies, showing who composed the different wings, the commanders, etc., in the first plan, and to indicate the final results of the issue in the second plan. Herodotus's account covers about two pages and is easily understood. The students were allowed to use short explanatory notes in connection with the diagram. I first explained to the class that an army was usually formed into left and right wings and center. Here are some of the results.

- I. 1. The center made weak so as to make Athenian line equal to Persian.
- II. 1. Left and right wing of Persian in rout, pursued by Athenians.
2. Athenian center driven back by Persian center.
3. Athenian wings close in on Persian center.
4. Persians driven to ships.

Some members of the class drew three positions.

The following is an example of an oral problem. The class had studied the life and the social institutions of the Spartans, and were presented with Plutarch's account of the life of Lycurgus. The problem was to construct Spartan society from this document. The results were surprising. All the class were allowed to take part and the results written out on the board.

THE SPARTAN DISCIPLINE FOR YOUTHS.

Plutarch's "Life of Lycurgus," Chapters 16-19.

Nor was it in the power of the father to dispose of the child as he thought fit. He was obliged to carry it before certain tryers at a place called Lesche; there were some of the elders of a tribe to which the child belonged. Their business it was carefully to view the infant, and if they found it stout and well-made they gave order for its rearing, and allowed to it one of the nine thousand shares of land above mentioned for its maintenance, but if they

found it puny and ill-shaped, ordered it to be taken to what was called the Apothetae, a sort of chasm under Taygetus, as thinking it neither for the good of the child itself, nor for the public interest, that it should be brought up, if it did not from the very outset appear made to be healthy and vigorous.

1. The Spartans' land was divided into 9,000 shares.

Quotation—"They allowed the child one of the 9,000 shares of land."

2. Only strong boys were given land, for weaklings were put to death.

3. There were 9,000 citizens in Sparta.

Proof—Each healthy boy was given one share of land. There were 9,000 shares of land. Therefore, there were 9,000 citizens.

(Some of the students remembered with delight that the text gave 10,000.)

4. Children did not belong to parents, they belonged to the State.

"Nor was it in the power of the father to dispose of the child as he saw fit."

5. The 9,000 shares of land belonged to the State.

Proof—"They allowed it one of the 9,000 shares of land."

Conclusion—Therefore, the State was a Socialistic State, for it owned both land and children.

Besides the above facts, of which there was direct proof, there are many other facts about which the class may speculate, and reason.

Queries for speculation: In this exercise they are allowed to draw from their knowledge of the text.

- (1) How big was a share of land?

It was large enough to maintain a male citizen.

- (2) If the 9,000 shares included all the tillable land, how much did each man have?

This was answered by measuring the Eurotas River basin, and by scale calculating the amount each man would have. It was found from this that the shares were larger than might be expected, and so the hypothesis was rejected, and another line of attack made. Someone remembered that there were other classes in the State besides the Spartan, namely, the Perioeci and Helots. The former owned their land and paid tribute. There were 30,000 Perioeci, and it was concluded that they had possession of perhaps one-third of the land, including the poorer hill sections.

- (3) The third problem for speculation was with regard to the Spartan women and girls. The document is not specific as to sex in the matter of putting the infants to death; it uses the neuter pronoun throughout.

- (a) Query—Were the weak girls put to death?

The unanimous answer was "no," because it was stated that each child that was healthy was given one of the shares of land, and all doubted if the women received land.

- (b) But if the weak girls were not put to death, what was the probable result?

There would be more women than men in Sparta.

- (c) How were these women, who had no family, supported?

The answer was that they either worked or were supported by the State, the latter was considered the more probable.

The value of such an exercise is self-evident. The students come to think constructively rather than in terms of reproduction. The mind becomes dynamic and active rather than static and passive. The interest that may be aroused was indicated in my class. The class was developing the Spartan problem given

above. We had just brought up the question of the Spartan women when the bell rang and ended the period. When the class met the next day one of the brightest girls in the class said: "Well, Mr. Webb, I want to know what became of those poor Spartan women. I have been worrying about them ever since yesterday." It is a sign of some degree of success when the students can be brought to the point of worrying over their problems outside of class.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

The documents used in American history were taken from Hart's "Contemporaries." The first one here was written in 1747 by Doctor Wm. Douglas, physician and savant in Boston.

VARIOUS KINDS OF COLONIAL GOVERNMENT (1747).

BY DOCTOR WILLIAM DOUGLAS.

Concerning the General Nature and Constitution of British North American Colonies.

All our American settlements are properly colonies, not provinces, as they are generally called: Province respects a conquered people (the Spaniards in Mexico and Peru may perhaps in Propriety bear this Appellation) under a Jurisdiction imposed upon them by the Conqueror. Colonies are formed of National People, e.g., British in British Colonies, transported to form a Settlement in a foreign or remote country.

The first Settlers of our Colonies were formed from various Sorts of People. Some were peopled by Rebel Tories, some by Rebel Whigs (that Principle which at one Time is called Royalty, at another Time is called Rebellion) some by Church of England Men, some by Congregationalists or Independents, some by Papists (Maryland and Monserrat), the most unfit People to incorporate with our Constitution.

Colonies have an incidental good Effect. They drain from the Mother-Country the Disaffected and the Vicious, (in this same Manner, subsequent Colonies purge the more ancient Colonies); Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, drained from Massachusetts Bay, the Antinomians, Quakers, and other wild Sectaries. Perhaps in after Times (as it is at Times with the Lord Lieutenants and other high Officers in Ireland) some Malcontents of Figure, capable of being troublesome to the Administration at Home, may be sent in some great Offices to the Plantations.

We have some Settlements with a Governor only; others with a Governor and a Council, such are Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Hudson's Bay and Georgia without any house or Negative deputed by the Planters, according to the Essence of a British Constitution: These may be said not to be colonized.

There are various sorts of Royal Grants of Colonies. 1. To one or more personal Proprietors, their Heirs and Assigns. Such are Maryland and Pennsylvania; both Property and Government. 2. The Property to personal Proprietors; the Government and Jurisdiction in the Crown. This is the State of Carolinas and Jerseys. 3. Property and Government in the Crown, viz. Virginia, New York, and New-Hampshire commonly called Piscataqua. 4. Property in the People and their Representatives; the Government in the Crown; as is Massachusetts Bay. 5. Property and Government in the Governor and Company, called the Freeman of the Colony, such are Connecticut and Rhode Island.

This last seems to be the most effectual Method of the First settling and peopling of a Colony. Mankind are nat-

urally desirous of Parity and Leveling, without any fixed Superiority, but when a Society is Come to Maturity a more distinct fixed Subordination is found to be requisite.

The first part of the problem is concerned with the external evidence, that is, the knowledge that could be gained about the author. The class was asked to read the document and determine the following points:

1. (a) Was the author English or Colonial in sympathy?

(b) Give quotation to prove your statement.

2. (a) Determine the religion of the author.

(b) Give quotation in support of your opinion.

A.

Answers:

1. (a) Dr. William Douglas was English in his sympathies.

(b) "They (the Colonies) do not send their laws home for approbation. They assume command of the militia, which by the British Constitution is a prerogative of the Crown."

2. (a) The author is evidently of a protestant denomination.

(b) He says: "The most unfit people to incorporate in our constitution are church of Englishmen Independents, Papists, and Quakers. (The student here misinterpreted the author's meaning.)

B.

1. (a) The author is English in his sentiments.

(b) This is shown by his saying, "They (the Colonists) assume the command of the militia, which is a prerogative of the Crown."

2. (a) He was not a Catholic—"Some by Papists, the most unfit people to incorporate with our constitution." He was not a Quaker: "Rhode Island drained Massachusetts Bay of the Antinomians, Quakers, and other wild Sectaries." Therefore he must have been a protestant.

C.

1. (a) Dr. William Douglas was an American in sympathy.

(b) All our American settlements are properly called colonies and not provinces. Province respects a conquered people (as Spaniards in Mexico) while colonies are formed by a national people." When he uses the word "American" he gives it special emphasis by italics. He also speaks of *our* constitution.

2. (a) He was a protestant, hating the Papists.

"... Some were Papists (Maryland) the most unfit people to incorporate in our constitution."

From this exercise it will appear that it is difficult for seniors even, to get the same meaning from the printed page. Some students made the author sympathize with the Americans, others with the English, and the same passage was quoted as a proof of both statements. "Our American colonies" was taken in one instance to mean that Dr. Douglas spoke of them as an American speaking of our country, our home; and in another as an Englishman speaking of his possessions, "our Land," "our colonists," etc.

We next come to consider the internal evidence of the document. The class was asked to do five things:

1. (a) To find the reason assigned by Dr. Douglas for the development of a democracy in America.

(b) To give quotation.

2. To give the classification of the colonies from the least democratic to the most democratic.

3. To give the bases of classification.

4. To determine why one colony was omitted.

5. To classify the colony that was omitted.

1. The answer to the first question is fairly simple, and was not asked as a problem, but in order to impress the idea conveyed. The answer was as follows: "Dr. Douglas states that a democracy should develop in America, because in the beginning of a society 'Mankind are naturally desirous of Parity and Leveling, but when a Society is come to maturity, a more distinct and fixed Subordination is found to be requisite.'"

2. I. Least Democratic.

1. Colonies without democracy.

(a) Virginia, New York, and New Hampshire, having property and government in the Crown.

(b) Carolinas and Jerseys, having property in personal proprietors, government and jurisdiction in the Crown.

(c) Maryland and Pennsylvania, having both property and government in personal proprietors.

II. More Democratic.

(a) Massachusetts Bay, having property in the people and their representatives, and the government in the Crown.

III. Connecticut and Rhode Island, having property and government in the governor and company.

3. The classification is double, based on governmental control and on property ownership. The colonies become more democratic as they pass out of the hands of the Crown and into the hands of the people.

4. Georgia is omitted because the author considers it not colonized. "It has a governor and council without any house or Negative deputed by the planters. According to the essence of the British Constitution. These may be said not to be colonized."

5. Georgia comes into the same group with Pennsylvania and Maryland. The land and government rested with the proprietors.

From this study the distinction between Royal, Proprietary and Democratic Colonies becomes clear at once.

The next problem to be presented was given to the class to be prepared outside the classroom in the form of a written paper. The paper was to be in the form of a contrast between two original documents of the American Revolutionary period. The first document is entitled "The Declaration of Rights and Grievances of the Colonists," and was prepared by the Stamp Act Congress in 1765. The second was prepared ten years later, and is entitled "The Necessity of Self Defense." The students were required to read and analyze both, and to show in the paper the change which the spirit of the Americans had undergone in the ten years intervening between the writing of the first and second document. The results were highly satisfactory. The following is one of the better papers:

A CONTRAST BETWEEN THE ATTITUDE OF THE COLONIES TOWARD ENGLAND IN 1765 AND 1775.

By reading the "Declaration of Rights and Grievances of

the Colonists" by the Stamp Act Congress and the Declaration on the "Necessity of Self-Defense" by the Second Continental Congress, we can easily see the attitude of the colonists in 1775 to have been more hostile toward English rule than in 1765. The Declaration of 1765 was more a petition than a declaration. It merely cited the rights of the colonists which were being violated and asked for the repeal of the violating acts. On the other hand, the declaration in 1775 charged the English government with attempting to curtail all the liberties of the colonies, and declared that rather than submit they would take up arms. The Congress of 1765 addressed themselves as cherishing "the warmest sentiments of affection and duty to his majesty's person and government," fully admitting the right of England to rule them in most matters; but nowhere in the Declaration of 1775 do we find a concession to England's governmental authority. Again, the colonists in 1765 related what *might* happen and warned England of the consequences of continuing her despotic course, while in 1775 they charged England with having already committed these impositions on their liberties and declared themselves resolved to fight until their inherent liberties were again secured. We may notice, however, that the colonies declared themselves not to be fighting to establish independent states, but merely to regain their rights. They still acknowledged, in a way at least, the sovereignty of England.

The possibilities of this sort of work in American history are determined only by the ability and industry of the teacher, and by the time he has at his disposal. The problems may be made more intricate and complex as the ability of the class to deal with them increases.

PART III—ADVANTAGES OF THE PROBLEM METHOD.

The following are some of the advantages of the problem method:

(1) The problem method of presentation brings out clearly the distinction between the original source and the secondary work. This distinction, unless emphasized markedly, remains vague in the minds of the pupils. I inquired of an eleventh grade class the meaning of a secondary work, and found that not one out of twenty-five could give it.

(2) Another advantage of the problem method is that it teaches the student to get the thought from the printed page. The student must learn to read carefully, and to consider each word and phrase. I have had students read documents over three or four times in search of facts, complaining that they could not find what was required, and upon reading again, gasp with delight at discovering it, somewhat astonished at not having done so earlier.

(3) The problem method of presentation does much to destroy the credulous belief in the printed page. When the boy comes to handle the original sources, and to build up his history from them, and to see how his text follows the source, he realizes that the text is but the efforts of man to approach the truth—and sometimes lame efforts.

(4) It provides a task for the student, and a task worthy of his mettle. It challenges his intellect rather than his memory. I have had students complain: "You make every problem harder."

(5) It arouses the self-activity of the student to the

extent that no other method in history does. By the wise choice of problems this self-activity is forced to express itself in an intelligent manner.

(6) It arouses great interest in the class, for it gets attention, and attention is the first pre-requisite of interest. Professor Johnson tells of a teacher who gave her class the problem of learning whether gunpowder was used at the Battle of Crecy, and he said the students became so interested in their problem that they remained several minutes after school to solve it. I have related a similar case of my own experience where the little girl worried over the Spartan women.

(7) But the chief claim that the problem method of presentation makes is that it leads the students to form judgments and to look behind the act for the human motive of the act. The class found the motive of Clisthenes to be selfish. They could also find that Queen Elizabeth had a motive in not becoming a strong religious advocate. If history can teach children to look for the motives that prompt the acts around them, it will have done much to make them observers of human nature, and thus enable them to

care for their own interests better. We have to form more judgments in the social world than in the scientific world. If the problem method in history will enable us to form correct social judgments, it will have increased wonderfully the functional value of history, and will fully justify history in the school curriculum. It is to be hoped that teachers will make a close study of this method, for it is believed that such a study will reveal to them its many advantages and will lead them eventually to more scientific history teaching.

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The European Background for the High School Course in American History

BY PROFESSOR I. J. COX, THE UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI.

I.

In view of present tendencies one is uncertain whether to speak of the European background of American history or the American foreground of modern European history. Just now we are in a period of transition when the colonial period of American history is being wrenched from its time-honored setting and attached to a foreshortened and somewhat misshapen course in European history, in which English history is also included. Possibly the process had better be likened to skin grafting, where fresh tissue is used to cover up the seared and festering scars of a decrepit past. But whatever the figure there are many loose shreds to show former attachments or still imperfect incorporation.

Whether we call the subject matter under consideration, American colonial history, or term it a phase of European history, it is substantially identical, as the text books readily show. Possibly it has a somewhat richer content, under its new guise, but the problems of selection and emphasis are decidedly more complicated. One may, for some events, gain the advantage that comes from looking forward rather than backward. For instance the teacher may impart a new significance to the Crusades by dwelling more fully upon their ultimate connection with the discovery of America. One might even hint that the coming of the Angles and Saxons in some way affected the Puritan Hegira. But the teacher would naturally emphasize less remote topics such as the ex-

pansion of commerce in the Mediterranean following the Crusades; the Renaissance, with its material as well as intellectual awakening; the Reformation, with its social, dynastic, and political changes, as well as religious modifications; and the chartered company, rooted in medieval guilds and trade associations and destined to expand into the modern corporation with vast capital and unlimited field of action.

II.

In treating these topics the present day high school teacher will, like his conscientious predecessor, point out their bearing upon later American history. He will now have a double incentive to dwell upon these topics for his pupils will not be likely to encounter them in the history course bearing the national label. At the same time under skilful direction the pupil will be led to view the specific events from a much broader angle and thus escape the particularistic attitude that has been the besetting sin of so much teaching in American history.

Even with available text books the student may gain the proper background for appreciating the great intellectual and material expansion of the sixteenth century. He may be led to perceive that the mariner's compass not only aided in shifting the commercial center from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, but made possible voyages to America and the East Indies; that gunpowder not only hastened the overthrow of feudalism, but assisted in establishing

Spanish supremacy in the New World; and that printing which made the classical learning more prevalent, also rendered available the results of maritime discoveries. Ancient and medieval ideas of cosmography became common property. The increasing but still indefinite knowledge of the Far East and a desire to obtain in greater abundance its characteristic products impelled men to seek the way thither. This positive incitement, rather than the negative influence of the Ottoman Turks, is the true key to the careers of Columbus and Henry the Navigator. Both of these characters, however, exhibit traces of the medieval crusading instinct and still further show the influence of a former age in appealing to the Pope to sanction their exploration and to arbitrate their territorial disputes.

The development of nationality in western Europe at the opening of the modern period, and the ensuing struggle to maintain the balance of power between the three chief monarchs, have a bearing upon American History that cannot be ignored. This is particularly true of Spain, and in view of the recent interest in Latin American affairs, one may well take time for a brief summary of a few typical institutions, like the church, the monarchy, the municipality, and the legal code, that played so conspicuous a part in the later Spanish colonies and in the succeeding republics. Our people as a whole need to learn that contemporary life in America has been affected by Iberian influences, as well as Anglo-Saxon, and that a comparison between the two is not always discreditable to the former.

READING REFERENCES.—For the general background, teacher and pupil alike will gain much from the pioneer texts of Prof. J. H. Robinson and those in which he collaborated with Professors Breasted and Beard. Other textbook writers are rapidly following in their footsteps, so that within the next few years in the majority of high schools, we seem destined to lose English history and American colonial history as separate subjects. On the whole, the change will probably be beneficial, for most institutions had not seen their way clear to the introduction of four years of work in history.

Aside from the text-books mentioned above the teacher and student will find the following of value for general references: E. Emerton, "Medieval Europe" (Ginn, Boston, 1895); F. Schevill, "The History of Modern Europe" (Scribners, New York, 1907); E. P. Cheyney, "An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England" (Macmillan, New York, 1905); and "The European Background of American History" (Harper's, New York, 1905, Vol. 1 of *The American Nation*); W. Cunningham and E. A. McArthur, "Outline of English Industrial History" (Macmillan, London, 1898); and Martin A. S. Hume, "The Spanish People" (Appleton, New York, 1911). The teacher will find the following suggestive: Carl Becker, "The Beginnings of the American People" (Houghton, Boston, 1915, Vol. 1 of *The Riverside History of the United States*); Beasley, "The Dawn of Modern Geography" (Putnam's, New York, 1897, 1901); G. L. Beer, "Origins of the British Colonial System" (Macmillan, New York, 1908); A. F. Pollard, "The History of England" (Holt, New York, 1912). The Cambridge Modern History is helpful for the period covered by the article, but particularly Volumes I-III, V, VI, VIII, IX. For a new

interpretation of an old subject consult A. H. Lybyer, "The Ottoman Turks and the Routes of Oriental Trade," in the "English Historical Review," October, 1915. In order to save time the Spanish topics had best be taken up in special assignments. The works of Martin A. S. Hume will be helpful. For those who handle Spanish, Altamira will afford some profitable studies. Keller and Moses may be consulted with profit. R. Altamira, "Historia de Espana y de la Civilizacion Espanola" (four volumes, Barcelona, 1909-1911); A. G. Keller, "Colonization" (Ginn, Boston, 1908); B. Moses, "The Establishment of Spanish Rule in America" (Putnam, New York, 1898). See also Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella" (various editions). The English background should be stressed in the reading, if English history is not taken as a separate course.

III.

More important even than nationality and its new expression was the Protestant Revolt of the early sixteenth century. By the middle period it had provoked religious wars in Germany and France, and led to the Reformation within the Catholic Church. The struggle in Germany affected America only remotely, but the political-religious strife in France and Holland afforded a sort of training school for many English adventurers who afterward figured in American exploration and colonization. More important still was the attempt of the Huguenot faction, under the leadership of Coligny, to provide a possible refuge in Brazil and in Florida. The Portuguese with some difficulty finally expelled them from the vicinity of Rio de Janiero and the blood-thirsty Menendez more quickly exterminated those who settled near the St. John's River. These attempts are significant because they represent the movements in Europe that led to the first struggles for supremacy in the New World.

In connection with the Protestant Revolt the pupil should be led to see why Calvin and Loyola affected American history more directly than Luther and Zwingli, and in what definite ways. Knox and the Scotch reformers in time swell the current of American migration, but their followers like the Huguenots, mark the close rather than the beginning of the seventeenth century. For the earlier period, their natural allies, the Separatists and Puritans, accomplished their great work both in Old and New England. To appreciate this, it is necessary for the student to understand the difference between the Protestant movement in England and similar events on the continent. Henry VIII, Edward VI, Mary, and Elizabeth, represent a sequence in churchly profession that serves to explain the claim of English sovereigns to religious as well as political supremacy. The revolt from Rome is personal rather than popular, until the middle class, which in England is relatively more numerous and influential than in her chief rival nation, allied itself with the new movement. Then by successive stages, Separatists and Puritans, exemplifying the tenets of Calvin, add their weight to contemporary social development until the "harrying" process of James I, disgusted with his years of servitude to Scotch Presbyterianism, forced them into exile in Holland or beyond the seas. In this way the Puritan influences affected all the Eng-

lish colonies, even those established primarily for commercial reasons.

The above statements furnish evidence that religion, commerce, and economic and foreign policy are so inextricably mixed under the early and later Stuarts and Cromwell, that it is exceedingly difficult to trace them in separate detail. This was apparent even under Elizabeth, when avarice, piety, and national pride led the English corsairs to attempt "to singe the Spanish King's beard," and their more regular colleagues to risk their lives and fortunes in rival colonies. Religious sympathy drew Raleigh temporarily into the service of the French Huguenots, personal interest made him a participant in despoiling the Irish, devotion to his sovereign, and patriotism, led him to undertake American colonization. His exceptional position enabled him to initiate this task, and we must understand the various factors that contributed to it in order to appreciate his real services as a pioneer English colonizer and as a victim of Spanish enmity.

We must also grasp the domestic problem presented by apparent over-population. This was largely the effect of "enclosures," aided by the dissolution of the monasteries, and the system of monopolies, from which Raleigh himself profited. This afforded an opportunity for economic co-operation, in this form of the corporation. The trading company had succeeded the guilds and "merchant adventurers" of an earlier age and linked their medieval practices with modern economic movements. While the most material field for the new corporation was presented in the Far East, pioneer organizations like the Virginia Company and the Council for New England played an important part in the subsequent development of Anglo-America, as did their offshoots, the later fur-trading corporations.

The political background of England likewise has much of interest for the student, although not so absorbing a topic as formerly. He must understand something of the three-fold organization of national government in England, and of its course of development, in order to appreciate the colonial counterpart and its modern successors, our State and National governments. The emphasis will be put on the executive and legislative divisions, and this will entail some description of the struggle between King and Parliament that determined the course of English history in the seventeenth century. Both parties to this struggle displayed an active interest in the colonies, encouraging the establishment of new ones, striving to regulate the old ones, and to shield all from foreign intruders. Cromwell, Charles II, and William III alike made substantial contributions to the Trade and Navigation Laws.

As for local political institutions the student should understand the parish and county organization in England sufficiently to recognize them in slightly altered form in Massachusetts and Virginia. The teacher would lose nothing in effectiveness, if, at this point, he could compare them rapidly with the Spanish municipality, which the descendants of the early

English emigrants are later to encounter in Texas. It goes without saying that the student must realize what the principle of representation meant in English history, in order to distinguish between the theories of real and virtual representation at the outbreak of the Revolution. Even after the founding of the colonies political controversies in England, such as marked the Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Bill of Rights, or even the Wilkes Case, are not without their weight in colonial affairs.

SUGGESTED READINGS.—The volumes of Robinson and his collaborators are important for this period, as are also Cheyney, Schevill, Cunningham, Hume, and Becker. Use also should be made of E. F. Henderson, "Short History of Germany" (Macmillan, New York, 1915); M. Creighton, "The Age of Elizabeth," and Seebohm, "Era of the Protestant Revolution" (Scribner's, New York, 1903, "Epochs of Modern History"); Gardiner, S. R., "The Puritan Revolution" (Scribner's, New York, 1893); A. L. Cross, "A History of England and Greater Britain" (Macmillan, New York, 1915); E. M. Hulme, "The Renaissance, the Protestant Revolution, and the Catholic Reformation in Continental Europe" (the Century Co., New York, 1915); J. R. Green, "Short History of the English People" (various editions); Froude, "Elizabethan Seamen of the Sixteenth Century" (London, 1895); Francis Parkman, "Pioneers of France in the New World" (Houghton, Boston, various editions), is the most interesting account of the rivalry of the French with the Portuguese and Spaniards; W. Lowery, "The Spaniards in Florida, 1562-78" (Putnam, New York, 1905) gives the events in greater detail; John Fiske, "Old Virginia and Her Neighbors" (two volumes, Houghton, Boston, 1897), affords some suggestive hints; Arthur D. Innes, "England Under the Tudors" (Methuen, London, 1904), and G. M. Trevelyan, "England Under the Stuarts" (Methuen, 1904) give the events of the period for England at greater length; Gardiner in his "History of England" (Longmans, London and New York, 1897-1893) gives the facts in extenso for the political struggle between the king and parliament. Macaulay's essay on Milton still remains a stimulating description of the times in which the great poet lived. F. C. Montague in his "Elements of English Constitutional History" (Longmans, London, 1903); T. P. Taswell-Langmead, "English Constitutional History" (Houghton, Boston, 1890); Jesse Macy, "The English Constitution" (Macmillan, New York, 1906); Hannis Taylor, "The Origin and Growth of the English Constitution" (two volumes, Houghton, Boston, 1898) give the constitutional side of English development. Adams and Stephens, "Select Documents of English Constitutional History" (Macmillan, New York, 1901), and G. W. Prothero, "Select Statutes of Elizabeth and James I" (Oxford, 1898) give the most significant documents. Cheyney, "A Short History of England" (Longmans, New York, 1914) give a stimulating account of the neglected period following the defeat of the Armada. In addition to the more general works the diligent teacher will appreciate Tawney's "The Agrarian Problem in the Sixteenth Century" (Longmans, London, 1912), and Traill, "Social England" (Cassell, London, 1897-99). J. W. Thompson, "The Wars of Religion in France" (University of Chicago, 1909), is helpful for the religious struggle in that country. The more recent lives of Luther, such as Beard's, Preserved Smith's and McGiffert's will repay careful reading; also Walker's "Calvin," and O'Connor's "The Autobiography of Ignatius Loyola." The Cambridge Modern History, I-III, contains excellent detailed bibliographies for this period. Many of

the articles in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" will repay careful study.

IV.

Intercolonial rivalry and an adherence to the mercantile system determine the policy of Spain, France, and England, and Holland during the latter part of the seventeenth and much of the following century. The first three nations combine to eliminate the fourth, but only partially succeed in doing so. This desire will serve to explain England's commercial wars with Holland under Cromwell and Charles II and her acquiescence while Louis XIV attempted to despoil the Dutch and to seize the Spanish Netherlands. England's reward for the secret treaty of Dover is the secure possession of the former Dutch colonies on the Hudson and the Delaware, the major part of the profits from the African slave trade, and later an extensive addition to her colonial population from the French Huguenots. But when Louis XIV proposed to absorb all the plunder from the Spanish colonies, the English commercial classes gladly rallied to the support of his chief opponent, the Dutch Stadtholder, now become their sovereign, and began a second Hundred Years' War. It is this commercial purpose, rather than a determination to prevent unwelcome dynastic changes, that serves to explain England's adherence to the enemies of the Grand Monarch. The title to Nova Scotia and the Hudson Bay region, suzerainty over the Iroquois, commercial privileges at Porto Bello, and the slave trade guaranteed by the *Assiento* constitute her reward, duly delivered in the Treaty of Utrecht.

As indirect effects of these wars we may mention the extensive migration of Germans from the Palatinate and other portions of the Rhine Valley, and the coming of the so-called "Scotch-Irish." The former were victims of Louis Fourteenth's policy to ravage what he could not hold. Trade and industrial restrictions as well as an unfortunate religious policy caused the transfer of a considerable population from the north of Ireland to America. About the same time that these people were alienated by the repressive acts of William III and Anne, the commercial classes of Scotland were drawn into the union that created Great Britain. The unfortunate Scot's Darien settlement had some effect in hastening this movement.

These gains, particularly those of a commercial nature, were not to be held without a struggle. Following the disastrous wars of Louis XIV, France, under Cardinal Fleuri, endeavored to remain at peace with her powerful neighbors. England, under Walpole, was devoted to the same policy. Their designs, however, were frustrated by the compact between the two branches of the Bourbon family. The encroachments of the British merchants and their disregard of Spanish laws and customs led the outraged officials to barbarous retaliation. In 1739, English public opinion forced a declaration of war against Spain. The West Indies became the scene of fighting in which the fleet of Vernon, aided by colonial volunteers under Wentworth, operated unsuccessfully

against Panama and Cartagena. Oglethorpe in Georgia fought a long but indecisive contest with his Spanish rivals in Florida, and Anson performed his wonderful voyage around the globe. This struggle with Spain was soon merged into the greater conflict known as the "War of the Austrian Succession." The area of conflict in America extended to include the Canadian border, where Louisburg, a tempting prize to New England, was speedily reconveyed to its former owners. There was a general attempt at Aix-la-Chapelle, to restore conditions as they were before the war.

Despite the destructiveness of this and the succeeding war, for the peace of 1748 proved only a truce, England was able to wage it without serious difficulty and to aid its allies with heavy subsidies. This indicated the reflex value of the colonial and commercial system that formed one of the main springs of hostility. The growing importance of the colonies was still further attested by the fact that the Seven Years' War in Europe was preceded by hostilities in the American forests. In Europe, France reversed the diplomatic policy of two hundred years, allied herself with Austria, and thus encouraged that power to attack Frederick the Great. The struggle in which these two powers with numerous other allies were pitted against the great warrior king, meant for them and ultimately for Spain, a renewal of the family compact and the wasting of lives and resources that might have enabled the Bourbon powers to check the colonial ambitions of England. As it turned out, at a relatively small cost in subsidies and men, that power gained the mastery of the seas and with it, colonial supremacy.

SUGGESTED READINGS.—The brief accounts of Cheyney, Cross, Green and Robinson to which we have already referred, are valuable for this period. Robinson and Beard's "Development of Modern Europe" (Ginn, Boston, 1907) is now available. In the "Epochs of Modern History," Osmond Airy, "The English Restoration and Louis XIV," Edward E. Morris, "The Age of Anne and the Early Hanoverians," are suggestive. J. R. Seely, "The Expansion of England" (Macmillan, London, 1891), and A. T. Mahan, "The Influence of Sea Power in History," emphasize the maritime growth of England. Macaulay's brilliant pages describe in detail the political changes centering around 1688. For the continent, Wakeman, "Europe from 1598 to 1715" (Macmillan, New York, 1898), and J. B. Perkins, "France Under the Regency" (Houghton, Boston, 1894), and Traill, "William III," give additional material for the period before Utrecht. For affairs in Spain, Hume's "Spain, 1479-1788," and Altamira are the best. Volumes V and VI of the Cambridge Modern History are valuable for political events and bibliography. Beer's "British Colonial Policy, 1754-1765" (Macmillan, New York, 1907) gives an excellent description of the mercantile system. W. H. Lecky, "England in the Eighteenth Century" (New York, 1892-93) gives many facts. E. B. Greene in "Provincial America" ("American Nation," VII) gives a brief account of the German and Scotch-Irish immigration, as does Fiske in "Old Virginia and Her Neighbors" (Houghton, Boston, 1898). R. G. Thwaites summarizes clearly the relations between France, England and Spain that led up to the War of the *Assiento* and the later conflicts of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years War. Basil

Williams, "Life of William Pitt" (London, 1913) is the latest and one of the best. Volume VII of the Cambridge History relates wholly to the United States. W. M. Sloane, "The French War and the Revolution" (Scribners, New York, 1893) has many references to contemporary European events, but without adequate explanation.

V.

With this period the majority of high schools, at least in the future, will take up American history as a separate subject. But it will still be intimately connected with the European background. One of the minor heritages of the Seven Years' War was the resentment of Frederick because England, in 1761, suddenly stopped the subsidy upon which he depended to continue his unequal conflict. He did not have to wait long to feed in small measure the grudge he bore his former ally. This took the negative form of refusing to permit England to hire his subjects for subduing her rebellious colonists, or to march those she hired from his neighbors across his territory. Further than that he did not go, and it is fitting at the present moment to make this fact clear. France, too, was watching with pleasure the troubles that her rival experienced, as soon as the latter attempted to interfere in the domestic policy of colonies that had grown independent through decades of "salutary neglect." Watching events closely and affording such aid and encouragement as circumstances afforded, her statesmen, at the earliest possible moment after these colonies had resolved to make this declaration an actuality, entered into an alliance with them and rendered most material service to that end. Moreover she brought Spain into the inevitable conflict.

If there is one portion of American history that needs to be taught with less provincialism than all others, it is the Revolution. The pupil should be led to see that it was, first, a civil war in which petty persecution and guerilla warfare played their part, and with no definite sectional divisions to mark out the respective groups of combatants. Next, that it was a struggle between thirteen colonies and the mother country. In this struggle possibly a third of the inhabitants, after 1776, might be counted as advocates of independence, although never represented by a proportionate quota, and usually exhibiting a devotion to the common cause that varied inversely with the distance from current point of British attack. Yet in the midst of this struggle the former colonies were passing through a political development that fixed for all time their own status on a democratic basis and profoundly affected the current of world history. Finally, that it became a world-wide war, in which France, Spain, and Holland were openly involved, with the Baltic powers, Prussia, Austria, and Russia, more than secretly hostile, and with the "unspeakable Turk," the only avowed friend of Great Britain on the continent. In this world conflict, however, the student must remember that the attitude of none of these governments was determined by a desire to give the United States the blessing of freedom, although many of their subjects may have been so

moved. Jealousy, revenge, and selfish aggrandizement, then, as ever, determined the attitude of European cabinets.

In the outcome the United States fared better than most of her leaders dared hope. In the final blow at Yorktown, the French navy was the determining factor and French loans, supplemented by purchases of supplies, maintained the precarious credit of the United States until the Dutch took up the thankless task. Doubtless the "Armed Neutrality" of the Baltic powers contributed to break the stubborn will of George III. Even reluctant Spain afforded welcome assistance in moments of sorest need. Yet those who should be most ready to acknowledge these favors must remember that only France and Holland were willing to treat with the rebellious colonies; that France, for dynastic reasons, was bound to prefer the interests of Spain to our own, and because of previous unsuccessful joint efforts owed something to her unwilling ally; and that Spain, already apprehensive over Anglo-American proximity and filled with dire foreboding at the prospect of revolutionary sentiment, spreading to her own colonies, refused to enter into diplomatic relations with us, except upon unthinkable terms in regard to boundaries and the navigation of the Mississippi.

The average high school pupil will hardly derive much advantage from a study of party conditions in England that made our preliminary treaty with that power possible. Yet at the proper time, the teacher should be prepared to explain the dissension between Fox and Shelburne in the Rockingham cabinet, and to point out the significances of the coalition that reversed Lord North's policy, and initiated negotiations for peace. The teacher must also appreciate the difficulties that confronted Vergennes in preserving a discreet balance between the two allies of France, Spain and the United States. The French minister had to consider the needs of his own country and also the desires of Spain, before favoring all the aspirations of the Americans. One is apt to lose sight of this fact in teaching American history apart from its European setting.

SUGGESTED READINGS.—Cross, Cheyney, "A Short History of England" (Ginn, Boston, several editions); Robinson and Beard, "The Development of Modern Europe, I," and "Outlines of European History, Part II," are satisfactory texts for this period. The revised editions of West and Harding are also good. G. E. Howard, "Preliminaries of the Revolution" ("The American Nation") touches somewhat upon the European background. Sloane's and Fiske's well known volumes give slight references to the foreign situation. S. G. Fisher, "The Struggle for American Independence" (two volumes, Lippincott, Philadelphia, 1910) goes more into detail and emphasizes certain points in regard to party conditions in England that should be kept clearly in mind. E. Channing, "History of the United States," III (Macmillan, New York, 1912) is the best general account.

A number of books by British writers are available. W. Hunt, "Political History of England, 1760-1801" (Longmans, London, 1905) gives the Tory point of view. G. M. Trevelyan in "The Early Life of Charles James Fox" (Longmans, London) and "The American Revolu-

tion" (four volumes, Longmans, London, 1899-1912) represents the opposite Whig policy. "The Cambridge Modern History," Volumes VI and VII, contain excellent bibliographies as well as a good running account of political events on both sides of the water. The biographies of Chatham, of Burke (especially those by Morley), and Fitzmaurice, "Life of the Earl of Shelburne" are valuable for the teacher. Adams and Stephens give some important documents.

Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History" will be helpful for the attitude of the French and Spaniards. Ogg, "Opening of the Mississippi" (Macmillan, New York, 1903) gives a sketch of their position in regard to the southwestern territory. B. A. Hinsdale, "The Establishment of the First Southern Boundary of the United States" (Report of American Historical Association of 1893), and F. L. Riley, "Spanish Policy in Mississippi" (Ibid, 1897) describe some of the interesting events that affected our boundary controversies with Spain. J. W. Foster, "A Century of American Diplomacy" (Houghton, Boston, 1903), and F. E. Chadwick, "The United States and Spain, Diplomacy" (Scribners, New York, 1908) introduce the foreign background to our incipient diplomacy. Admiral Mahan is especially valuable in his peculiar field.

VI.

With the achievement of independence the European background will naturally form a part of our diplomatic history, which has already received adequate treatment in this series. One is tempted to speculate on the reflex action of America in Europe as shown in the French Revolution. He will be on more certain ground in emphasizing the wars between France and England from 1793 to 1815 as later phases of the commercial struggle we have already mentioned. It was measurably a contest between England and the Latin nations, although Napoleon tried to close the whole continent to his enemy's products. The earlier phases of the conflict resulted, after a surprising combination of circumstances, in the transfer of Louisiana to the United States. While it is not necessary to trace the intricate details of this event in Europe—for it was almost wholly a European transaction—it is well to note that one of Napoleon's avowed objects was to build up a commercial rival to Great Britain in the New World.

During the later phases of this conflict Napoleon emphasized his "Continental System" in the futile endeavor to overthrow Great Britain, and thus materially added to the difficulties of American neutrality. Russia was also a fellow sufferer, with whom our nation came to have an intelligent sympathy. One needs to keep this fact clearly in mind, in order to appreciate Russia's later manifestations of friendship during our second war with Great Britain. More significant still was Napoleon's intervention in Spain and Portugal, in direct furtherance of his commercial schemes. This event precipitated the revolt of the Spanish colonies and ultimately led to his undoing, but it also brought about an alliance between the Iberian powers and Great Britain that materially increased the latter's commercial advantage. The intervention itself aroused both the concern and hope of Jefferson and his successor, but it

did not otherwise favor their views except in regard to West Florida. In nearly all portions of Latin America, Great Britain forestalled or surpassed our efforts to gain new markets, although to do so, she had to pursue an equivocal policy toward her ally. Our unnecessary and indecisive war with her strengthened the initial advantage that her alliance with Spain gave. In the end our government had to content itself with a more or less academic expression of separateness, that long proved illusory to itself and to its neighbors, and inexplicable to its European rivals.

In the events leading up to the pronouncement of the Monroe Doctrine, one should mention the reactionary policy of Metternich and Alexander I as shown in the proposed "Holy Alliance" and in the "Quadruple Alliance" that grew out of the Congress of Vienna. But after all, the jealousies and bickerings of these unnatural combinations, after the great menace of Napoleon was removed, defeated their ostensible ends and gave the United States its opportunity to take an aspiring, if somewhat rash, stand under the leadership of Monroe. Unaccountable as the President's message might be, aside from the promptings of Secretary Adams, it provoked the enthusiasm of our own people and aroused extravagant hopes among our neighbors. Although the immediate effect was transient, subsequent interpretation has established the year 1823 as the date that marks the waning of European influence in American history.

One must, it is true, still note sporadic cases of its influence. The potato famine in Ireland, the English policy of free trade and abolition of slavery and the revolutionary movements in 1848 exert a marked influence on our immigration. Kossuth's visit and the Kosta affair are hard to understand without some insight into Austro-Hungarian affairs. The attitude of France and England during our Civil War needs careful explanation. Russia's apparent friendliness has now been given a more natural explanation than formerly. The Treaty of Washington and the Geneva Arbitration require discussion of the European conditions behind them. The development of modern Germany has diminished the quota of her immigration, but the unity of Italy has seemed to have the opposite effect. European conditions as well as American demands have contributed to the great Slav and Jewish immigration of our day, but the teacher must, aside from exceptional conditions, content himself with a casual reference to them.

The present great struggle affords an opportunity for comparison with the wars of Napoleon. England's commercial policy, then and now, will afford a profitable series of special reports. Wilhelm II resembles the French Emperor in more ways than one. Our position as the chief neutral nation, our lack of preparedness for eventualities, the rigid adherence of our government to neutrality, if not pacifism, despite the partisanship of our citizens—all of these have but to be mentioned to suggest numberless topics for comparative study. Such comparisons, we may add, will give an interest, an intensiveness to American

history, that is seldom possible, and if wisely directed will serve the general aims of historical study to a gratifying degree.

The overworked secondary teacher may well ask where the time for this is to come from. Specialists have emphasized phases of the course in American history, each of which would more than fill the recitation periods of a year to the exclusion of all others. The necessary special reading of the conscientious teacher, not including current periodicals, is of appalling magnitude. The capacity of the student, to say nothing of his willingness, is limited. To add more to the program seems only to invite further intangible results from the secondary schools. Yet with all these factors in mind the writer urges that each year's work be marked by an endeavor to present some topics *in extenso* that have been comparatively neglected before. Whether this is carried out in class routine or not, it should be true of the teacher's own reading. The result will be a freshness in presentation that will benefit teacher and student alike. At the same time there should be a conscious attempt to present all topics in a broader setting. If the present article contributes in any way to that end, the writer is content.

SUGGESTED READINGS.—The general texts already mentioned are valuable for the whole nineteenth century, but especially suggestive for the Napoleonic wars. Henry Adams, "History of the United States" (nine volumes, Scribner's, New York, 1889-1891) is invaluable for the teacher. Mahan's "Sea Power in Its Relation to the War of 1812" (two volumes, Houghton, Boston, 1905) is very suggestive,

as is his companion volume, "Influence of Sea Power Upon the French Revolution" (two volumes, 1893). The accounts of the French Revolution are legion, but possibly that of Shailer Matthews (New York, 1901) and H. Morse Stephens (two volumes, Macmillan, 1886-1891) are as satisfactory as any. The new volume by H. E. Bourne (Century, New York, 1914) should not be overlooked. Of the multitude of biographies of Napoleon, Miss Tarbell's (McClure, New York, 1901) is popular, that by W. M. Sloane (Century, New York, 1896) sketchy but accompanied by attractive illustrations, and that of A. L. Fisher (London, 1912) the most satisfactory. Hunt's volume in the "Political History of England" and the succeeding volumes of the series are important for the teacher, as is the "Cambridge Modern History." H. W. V. Temperley's "George Canning" (Finch, London, 1905) will throw considerable light on the Monroe Doctrine (Cf. also "American Historical Review," XI, 779). A brief account of the influences producing this document is in F. J. Turner, "Rise of the New West" ("American Nation," XVI). The paper by W. S. Robertson in the "Turner Essays" (Longmans, New York, 1911) is important. The later volumes of the "Political History of England" and of the "Cambridge Modern History" should be consulted for the events of the midcentury and the Civil War. Hazen, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century" (Holt, New York, 1910) is a most interesting survey of the period. J. McCarthy, "History of Our Own Times" (three volumes, 1880); Ashley's "Life of Lord Palmerston (1879), and Morley's "Gladstone" (three volumes, 1903) are valuable for the era of the Civil War. For the attitude of Russia during this struggle consult F. A. Golder, "The Russian Fleet and the Civil War" ("American Historical Review," July, 1915). The "Memoirs" of Carl Schurz (three volumes, McClure, New York) give a vivid picture of the German revolution of 1848 and subsequent emigration to the United States. For the best books of the present Great War, one should consult the lists in the "Nation" and the "Dial."

History in the Summer Schools, 1916

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

Berkeley, Cal.

Professor Morris Jastrow, University of Pennsylvania; Jerome B. Landfield, A.B.; Professor Isaac J. Cox, University of Cincinnati; Professor Louis J. Paetow.

Introduction to the Historical Study of Religion. Mr. Jastrow.

Outlines of the History of Religion in the Ancient East. Mr. Jastrow.

The Territorial History of North America. Mr. Cox.

The History of Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Mr. Landfield.

Medieval History. Mr. Paetow.

Latin Learning in the Thirteenth Century. Mr. Paetow.

Spain and the United States, 1803-1823. Mr. Cox.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

Chicago, Ill., June 19 to September 1, 1916.

Professor J. W. Thompson; Professor F. Schevill; Professor B. Terry; Professor A. C. McLaughlin; Associate Professor C. Read; Associate Professor M. W. Jernegan; Associate Professor F. W. Shephardson; Assistant Professor C. H. Walker; Assistant Professor C. F. Huth; Mr. I. S. Kull; Mr. A. P. Scott.

European History: The Medieval Period, 376-1300. Mr. Walker.

European History: The Later Medieval and Early Modern Period, 1300-1715. Mr. Walker.

European History: The Later Modern Period, 1715-1900. Mr. Kull.

History of Antiquity. III. The History of Greece. Mr. Huth.

History of Antiquity. V. The Roman Empire. Mr. Huth.

The Feudal Age, 814-1250. Mr. Thompson.

The History of Southeastern Europe. Mr. Schevill.

The Expansion of Europe. Mr. Read.

The Expansion of Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Mr. Scott.

The Making of England. Mr. Terry.

History of the United States: The Early Period, 1607-1783. Mr. Scott.

Historiography and Historical Bibliography. Mr. Thompson.

The Rise of Prussia. Mr. Schevill.

The English Constitutional Monarchy and the Rise of Democracy. Mr. Terry.

The Economic and Social History of England from the Close of the Middle Ages to the Industrial Revolution. Mr. Read.

The Social and Industrial History of the American Colonies. Mr. Jernegan.

The Constitutional History of the United States, 1760-89. Mr. McLaughlin.

The History of the United States, 1877-1912. Mr. Shepardson.

Teachers' Course in American History, 1760-1860. Mr. Shepardson.

The Constitutional Questions of Jackson's Administration. Mr. McLaughlin.

Topics in the Social and Economic History of the Early West. Mr. Jernegan.

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO.

Boulder, Col., June 26 to August 5, 1916.

Assistant Professor Eckhardt; Professor Hodder, University of Kansas; Professor Maxey, University of Nebraska; Assistant Professor Lien.

History of the Middle Ages, 376-1300. Assistant Professor Eckhardt.

Teachers' Course. Assistant Professor Eckhardt.

American Colonial History. Professor Hodder.

The Revolution and the Constitution. Professor Hodder.

The Political and Constitutional History of the United States from 1840 to 1861. Professor Hodder.

International Law. Professor Maxey.

American Diplomacy. Professor Maxey.

General Principles of Political Science. Assistant Professor Lien.

European Governments. Assistant Professor Lien.

Current Governmental Topics. Assistant Professor Lien.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.*

New York City.

American History. General Course. Mr. Smith.

Ancient History. General Course. Mr. Smith.

Foundations of Modern Europe. Dr. Evans.

Modern and Contemporary European History. Doctor Pierson.

The Foundations of Modern Europe. Professor Kendrick.

Modern and Contemporary European History. Professor Kendrick.

Foundations of European Civilization. Doctor Evans.

The Development of American Nationality. Doctor Pierson.

The Ancient Orient. Professor Rogers.

The Hebrews. Professor Rogers.

The Hellenic World from the Peloponnesian War through the Macedonian Conquest. Professor Magoffin.

The Roman Empire to the Germanic Invasions. Professor Magoffin.

Medieval Culture and the Renaissance. Professor Muzzey.

History of the Intellectual Class in Europe. Professor Cushing.

Evolution of the European State System, 1648-1789. Professor Becker.

The Old Regime, the French Revolution, and the Work of Napoleon. Professor Muzzey.

History of England from the Opening of the Seventeenth Century to the Present Time. Professor Schuyler.

American Church History. Professor Rockwell.

The American Revolution. Professor Becker.

The United States, 1783-1815. Professor Schuyler.

The United States, 1850-1874. Professor Phillips.

International Relations—Latin-American Affairs. Dean Brandon.

European Church History, 1789-1915. Professor Rockwell.

The Expansion of Europe Since the Close of the Eighteenth Century. Professor Krehbiel.

International Relations—Latin-American History. Dean Brandon.

* Not all the information desired was obtainable at the time of going to press.

Seminar in Recent European History. Professor Krehbiel.

Seminar in American History. Professor Phillips.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

Ithaca, N. Y., July 6 to August 16, 1916.

Professor J. P. Bretz; Professor H. A. Sill, Professor W. E. Lunt; Principal James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Professor A. A. Young; Professor J. R. Turner; Professor A. P. Usher; Professor T. W. Lingle, Davidson College.

American Government and Politics. Professor Bretz.

American History, 1815-1860. Professor Bretz.

Greek and Roman History. Professor Sill.

European History Since 1814. Professor Sill.

Medieval History of Europe. Professor Lunt.

English History to 1485. Professor Lunt.

Seminary in English History. Professor Lunt.

Methods of Teaching History and Civics in the High School. Mr. Sullivan.

Principles of Economics. Professor Young.

Money and Banking. Professor Young.

Economic Problems. Professor Turner.

Corporation Finance and the Trust Problem. Professor Turner.

General Problems of Industrial History. Professor Usher.

Economic Background of Modern World Politics. Professor Usher.

South America. Social, Political and Economic Conditions. Professor Lingle.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

Hanover, N. H.

Professor Lingley; Professor Hormell.

History of the United States (1763-1829). Professor Lingley.

History of the United States (1876-1912). Professor Lingley.

The Teaching of Civics. Professor Hormell.

The Teaching of History. Professor Hormell.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Cambridge, Mass., July 10 to August 19, 1916.

Professor Charles H. Haskins; Professor Edwin F. Gay; Professor William MacDonald, Brown University; Mr. Clarence H. Haring; Dr. Julius Klein; Professor Archibald C. Coolidge; Professor George G. Wilson.

European History—Medieval and Modern. Professors Charles H. Haskins and Edwin F. Gay.

History of England. Professors Charles H. Haskins and William MacDonald.

American Politics in the Nineteenth Century. Professor MacDonald.

Historical Bibliography. Professor Haskins.

History of Latin Civilization in America. Mr. Haring and Dr. Klein.

Factors and Problems in International Politics. Professors Coolidge and Wilson.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

Urbana, Ill.

Professor F. M. Anderson, Dartmouth College; Professor W. T. Laprade, Trinity College; Dr. A. C. Cole, University of Illinois.

European History, 1300-1648. The Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Religious Wars. Professor Laprade.

American History from the Outbreak of the Civil War to the Present Time. Dr. Cole.

The West in American History, 1850-1872. Dr. Cole.

The Foreign Policy of Great Britain, 1713-1815. Professor Laprade.

History of France Since 1815. Professor Anderson.

Investigations of Selected Topics. Dr. Cole.

INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

Bloomington, Ind.

Professor James A. Woodburn; Assistant Professor Albert L. Kohlmeier; Dr. Logan Esarey.

American History. Mr. Woodburn.

Medieval and Modern History. Mr. Kohlmeier.

English History. Mr. Esarey.

Modern History. Mr. Kohlmeier.

American Parties and Party Leaders. Mr. Woodburn.

American Diplomatic History. Mr. Kohlmeier.

History of Indiana. Mr. Esarey.

Seminary in American History. Mr. Woodburn.

Seminary in Indiana History. Mr. Esarey.

IOWA STATE COLLEGE.

Ames, Iowa, June 12 to August 31, 1916.

The West in American History.

Economic History of American Agriculture.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

Baltimore, Md., July 5 to August 15, 1916.

Assistant Professor Crane; Assistant Professor W. S. Myers, Princeton University; Professor Lipscomb.

Pan-American Relations. Assistant Professor Crane.

American History, 1848-1877. Assistant Professor Myers.

American History to 1783. Assistant Professor Myers.

European History Since 1815. Assistant Professor Myers.

Greek History. Professor Lipscomb.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS.

Lawrence, Kan., June 8 to August 16, 1916.

Associate Professor Patterson; Associate Professor Davis; Associate Professor Dykstra; Associate Professor Crawford.

Medieval History. Associate Professor Patterson.

The Protestant Revolt. Associate Professor Patterson.

Contemporary American History, 1877-1912. Associate Professor Davis.

American Government. Associate Professor Dykstra.

Diplomacy, 1879-1916. Associate Professor Davis.

Political Parties. Associate Professor Dykstra.

Early England. Associate Professor Crawford.

English Institutions. Associate Professor Crawford.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Ann Arbor, Mich.

Professor W. L. Westermann, University of Wisconsin; Professor Dow; Professor Turner; Assistant Professor Robinson; Professor H. E. Bolton, University of California; Dr. Schurz.

History of Rome to the Reorganization by Diocletian. Professor Westermann.

The Hellenistic World from Alexander to Augustus. Professor Westermann.

The Teaching of History. Professor Dow.

The History of Europe Since 1870. Professor Turner.

Seminary in Recent English and European History. Professor Turner.

The Political and Constitutional History of the United States, 1760-1815. Assistant Professor Robinson.

The History of the United States, 1877-1916. Assistant Professor Robinson.

The Opening of the Far West, 1519-1848. Professor Bolton.

Seminary in the Relations of the United States with Mexico. Professor Bolton.

Present-day Latin-America. Dr. Schurz.

Latin-American History. Dr. Schurz.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY.

Oxford, O., June 12 to September 1, 1916.

Associate Professor John Ewing Bradford.

English History. A Survey of English History to the Accession of Queen Elizabeth.

History of the Ohio Valley. From Earliest Period Until 1820.

History of the Ohio Valley. 1820-1900.

American History. 1492-1750.

American History. 1750-1800.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.

Minneapolis, Minn.

Professor A. C. Krey; Professor A. B. White; Professor E. C. Barker, University of Texas.

Modern Europe. Europe from the End of the Thirty Years' War to the Present. Professor Krey.

Modern England from the Seventeenth to the Nineteenth Century. Professor White.

The Renaissance. Professor White.

Teachers' Course in History and Government. Professor Krey.

Formation of the Constitution. Professor Barker.

Diplomatic History of the United States Territorial Expansion. Professor Barker.

Jackson's Administration. Professor Barker.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

Columbia, Mo., June 8 to August 4, 1916.

Mr. Wrench, Mr. Olmstead, Mr. Trenholme, Mr. Viles.

Medieval History. Mr. Wrench.

Ancient History. Mr. Olmstead.

English History and Government. Mr. Trenholme.

American History. Mr. Viles.

The Renaissance and the Protestant Revolt. Mr. Wrench.

Recent European History. Mr. Trenholme.

Advanced Ancient History: Nationalism and Imperialism in the Ancient World. Mr. Olmstead.

Advanced United States History. The Period from 1825 to 1865. Mr. Viles.

Seminary in Historical Research and Thesis Work.

The Eastern Question. Mr. Olmstead.

The Crusades. Mr. Wrench.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA.

Lincoln, Neb., June 5 to July 28, 1916.

Professor Jones and Professor Persinger.

English History. International Relations. Professor Jones.

American History. South American Affairs. Professor Persinger.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

New York, N. Y.

Professor Marshall S. Brown; Professor Bernadotte Schmitt; Professor Ernest G. Sihler; Dr. Harold L. Reed; Professor Raymond McFarland; Assistant Professor Stuart C. McLeod; Dr. Leon Fraser; Mr. Earl W. Crecraft; Mr. Benjamin P. DeWitt.

American Colonial History. Professor Brown.

American History, 1783-1861. Professor Brown.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century. Professor Schmitt.

The Causes of the European War. Professor Schmitt.

The Revolutionary Period of American History. Professor Brown.

The British Empire Since 1815. Professor Schmitt.

Roman History. Professor Sihler.

Principles of Economics. Dr. Harold L. Reed.

History of Economic Thought. Dr. Reed.

Methods of Teaching Community Civics. Professor McFarland.

American Government. Assistant Professor McLeod.

The Governments of Modern Europe. Assistant Professor McLeod.

Seminar in Political Problems. Assistant Professor McLeod.

American Foreign Relations and Diplomatic Policy. Dr. Fraser.

Principles of Politics. Mr. Crecraft.

Political Parties in the United States. Mr. Crecraft.
 Current International Problems of the United States.
 Mr. Crecraft.
 Municipal Government and Current Problems. Mr. Cre-
 craft.
 American Government. Mr. DeWitt.
 Current Political and Social Problems. Mr. DeWitt.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

Columbus, O., June 19 to August 11, 1916.

Professor Knight; Assistant Professor Schlesinger; Pro-
 fessor Siebert; Mr. McLean.
 History of the United States, 1763-1829. Mr. Schlesinger.
 History of the United States, 1829-1912. Mr. Schlesinger.
 Political Parties in the United States, 1852-1912. Mr.
 Schlesinger.
 The Teaching of American History. Mr. Knight.
 Recent History of the United States, 1870-1890. Mr.
 Knight.
 Seminar in American Diplomatic History. Mr. Knight.
 Modern History from 1500 A.D. Mr. Siebert.
 History of England Since 1485 A.D. Mr. McLean.
 History of Greece. Mr. McLean.
 History of Germany. Mr. Siebert.
 The Age of the Renaissance, 1250 to 1500 A.D. Mr.
 McLean.
 Seminar in Modern European History. Mr. Siebert.

GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS.

Nashville, Tenn., June 15 to August 26, 1916.

Professor W. K. Boyd, Trinity College; Professor Eugene
 Fair, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; Professor F. M.
 Fling, University of Nebraska; Professor George Petrie,
 Alabama Polytechnic Institute.
 Medieval History. Mr. Boyd.
 The Protestant Revolt. Mr. Boyd.
 Modern European History. The Remote and Immediate
 Causes of the Present World Crisis. Mr. Fling.
 Review of American History. Mr. Petrie.
 Greek History, from the Cretan Period to the Conquest
 of the Mediterranean by Rome. Mr. Fair.
 Roman History. Mr. Fair.
 Southern History: Colonial and Revolutionary. Mr.
 Boyd.
 Southern History, 1783-1860. Mr. Boyd.
 English History. Mr. Fair.
 Methods of Teaching History. Mr. Fling.
 Industrial History of the United States. Mr. Fair.
 The Civil War and Reconstruction. Mr. Boyd.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Philadelphia, Pa., July 10 to August 18, 1916.

Professor A. C. Howland; Professor A. E. McKinley, and
 Dr. J. J. Van Nostrand.
 The Hellenistic World. Dr. Van Nostrand.
 The Roman Empire. Dr. Van Nostrand.
 Historians of Ancient Rome. Dr. Van Nostrand.
 English History from 1600-1800. Professor Howland.
 The Teaching of History. Professors McKinley and
 Howland.
 Recent American History Since 1877. Professor McKin-
 ley.
 American History, the Colonial Period. Professor
 McKinley.
 French History, 1200-1500. Professor Howland.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE.

State College, Pa., June 26 to August 4, 1916.

President Sparks; Professor Zook; Dr. Martin.
 History of England from 1689 to the Present. Professor
 Zook.
 Civil Government in the United States. Dr. Martin.
 History of Pennsylvania. Dr. Martin.
 Economic History of the United States. Dr. Martin.

Teachers' Course. President Sparks.
 Europe Since 1815. Professor Zook.
 General European History. Professor Zook.

RUTGERS COLLEGE.

New Brunswick, N. J., July 5 to August 11, 1916.

Professor John H. Logan; Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, Cen-
 tral High School, Newark, N. J.
 General History. History of Greece and Rome. Dr.
 Knowlton.
 General History. Europe in the Tenth and Eleventh
 Centuries. Dr. Knowlton.
 United States History. Outline Course Covering the
 Entire Field of American History. Professor Logan.
 Advanced United States History. Course A. Professor
 Logan.
 Advanced United States History. Course B. Professor
 Logan.
 Civics. Course A. General outline of the whole subject.
 Dr. Knowlton.
 Civics. Course B. Similar to A, but consists of a more
 detailed study of certain topics. Dr. Knowlton.
 International Relations. Professor Logan.

SUMMER SCHOOL OF THE SOUTH.

Knoxville, Tenn., June 20 to July 28, 1916.

Professor James D. Hoskins, University of Tennessee;
 Mr. Witt Bowden, Instructor in History, University of
 Pennsylvania; Mr. James T. Warren, Superintendent of
 Schools, Rockwood, Tenn.
 Ancient History. Mr. Bowden.
 England. From the Earliest Times to 1297. Professor
 Hoskins.
 England. From 1297 to 1603. Professor Hoskins.
 Western Europe. From the Outbreak of the French Revo-
 lution to the Franco-Prussian War, 1789 to 1870. Pro-
 fessor Hoskins.
 Recent European History. The Great States of Europe
 and their Relation to Each Other Since 1870. Mr. Bowden.
 American History. Mr. Bowden.
 United States History. Superintendent Warren.
 Tennessee History. Superintendent Warren.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

Austin, Texas, June 12 to July 27, 1916.

Doctor Gutsch; Professor Winston; Assistant Professor
 Marshall; Mr. Calhoun; Adjunct Professor Ramsdell; Ad-
 junct Professor Riker; Adjunct Professor Manning; Pro-
 fessor Keasbey.
 The Early Middle Ages, 395-814. Mr. Gutsch.
 The Feudal Age, 814-1300. Mr. Gutsch.
 England Before the Elizabethan Age. Mr. Winston.
 England from the Elizabethan Age to the Peace of Paris
 of 1763. Mr. Winston.
 The American Colonies and the Revolution, 1492-1783.
 Mr. Marshall.
 National Development and Expansion, 1783-1860. Mr.
 Calhoun.
 Division and Reunion, 1860-1914. Mr. Ramsdell.
 Europe Since the French Revolution. Mr. Riker.
 The Historical Background of the Great War. Mr.
 Riker.
 The Civil War. Mr. Ramsdell.
 The Diplomatic History of the Westward Movement,
 1803-1853. Mr. Marshall.
 Origin and Development of the Latin American Coun-
 tries. Mr. Manning.
 Emancipation of the Latin-American Nations. Mr. Man-
 ning.
 The Land Problem in Texas. Mr. Keasbey.
 The Economic and Commercial Geography of the South-
 west. Mr. Keasbey.

UNIVERSITY OF UTAH.

Salt Lake City, Utah, June 12 to July 21, 1916.

Professor Fellows; Professor Marshall; Mr. Thomas.

Modern History. An Outline Study of European History from the Time of Louis XIV to the Present. Professor Fellows.

Causes of the Great War and Plans for Permanent Peace. Professor Fellows.

Nineteenth and Twentieth Century History. Professor Fellows.

American History. The Civil War. Professor Marshall.

English History. Professor Marshall.

Oriental Life. Mr. Thomas.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

University, Va., June 20 to August 3, 1916.

Doctor J. M. McConnell, Professor of History, Davidson College, N. C.; Professor Walter Huffington, Superintendent of Schools, Goldsboro, N. C.; Doctor T. W. Page; Professor Lindsay Rogers; Dr. J. C. Bardin; Miss Mae Dabney, Charlottesville High School.

Ancient History. Doctor McConnell.

Middle Age.

The Modern Age. European History from 1450 to 1789. Doctor McConnell.

English History. Professor Huffington.

United States History and Civics. Doctor Page.

Civil Government in the United States. Doctor Page.

Virginia History. Miss Mae Dabney.

Review of United States History. Professor Huffington.

Principles of International Law. Professor Rogers.

The Pacific Settlement of International Disputes. Professor Rogers.

Latin-American Social Development. Doctor Bardin.

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON.

Seattle, Wash., June 19 to July 28, 1916.

Professors Meany and Richardson; Associate Professors McMahon and Bowman.

The Formative Period of English History. Professor Richardson.

Jackson to Lincoln. Associate Professor McMahon.

National Development. Associate Professor McMahon.

The Middle Ages. Associate Professor Bowman.

The European Background of American History. Associate Professor Bowman.

Open Lectures in History. Professor Meany.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Madison, Wis.

Professor Larson, University of Illinois; Professor Paxson; Professor Sellery; Associate Professor Chase; Associate Professor Root; Doctor West, Swarthmore College.

History of Rome. Mr. West.

Medieval History, 1095-1500. Mr. Sellery.

United States, 1763-1829. Mr. Root.

Greek Confederations. Mr. West.

English Constitutional History, 1066-1603. Mr. Larson.

The Reformation. Mr. Sellery.

European Colonies in America to 1823. Mr. Root.

History of Modern England, 1783-1914. Mr. Larson.

Recent History of the United States, 1875-1913. Mr. Paxson.

The Teaching of History. Mr. Chase.

Supplementary Reading for Teachers of History. Mr. Chase.

Seminary in American History, 1875-1885. Mr. Paxson.

The History Teacher's Magazine

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PROF. HENRY JOHNSON, Teachers' College, Columbia University, Chairman.

PROF. FRED. M. FLING, University of Nebraska.

MISS ANNA B. THOMPSON, Thayer Academy, South Braintree, Mass.

DR. JAMES SULLIVAN, Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.

PROF. FREDERIC DUNCALF, University of Texas.

PROF. O. H. WILLIAMS, University of Indiana.

ALBERT E. McKINLEY, Ph.D., Managing Editor

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STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT,
CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT
OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912,

of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, published monthly, except July and August, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1916.

State of Pennsylvania, } ss.
County of Philadelphia. }

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and county aforesaid, personally appeared Albert E. McKinley, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the managing editor of THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management, etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are:

Publisher, McKinley Publishing Co.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Editor, Albert E. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Managing Editor, Albert E. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Business Manager, Carl Little,	Philadelphia, Pa.

2. That the owners are:

Albert E. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Charles S. McKinley,	Philadelphia, Pa.

3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees and other security holders owning or holding one per cent. or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are: None.

(Signed) ALBERT E. McKINLEY.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 30th day of March, 1916.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN, Notary Public.

Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

"The American Economic Review" for March contains a most interesting article, "Russian Land Reform," by Professor Ely, of Wisconsin. According to the author, while the results achieved by the new regime are disputable, there is a portion of the peasants forming a strong land-owning class of farmers, economically independent, while another portion of the same class has deteriorated economically and constitutes the proletariat.

"America's Obligation and Opportunity," by Prof. George Burton Adams ("Yale Review," April), is a strong and historically consistent plea for American intervention in behalf of the Allies in case the present war ends with the victory of the Germans. Professor Abbott's article on "War and American Democracy" in the same magazine urges that our democracy learn the lesson of preparedness. This issue also publishes a study of the personality of Charles Sumner by Gamaliel Bradford, which is full of delightful glimpses of the character of the noted statesman.

"A New West," by James Middleton ("World's Work" for April), with its splendid illustrations, is a careful study of the vast resources of the West and of the importance of this section in national affairs.

The "Revue des Deux Mondes" for March has some interesting extracts from the journal of Mlle. Valirie Masuyer on "The Queen Hortense and Prince Louis."

Herbert Adams Gibbon's "An Ancient Village on the Marne" ("Harper's") is a charming account of Chateau-Thierry, its antiquities and manners.

"The Greek King and the Present Crisis," by Stanton Leeds ("Century"), is more or less a defence of Constantine I and his policy in the Balkans. The same magazine publishes a thought-inspiring article by Robert McCormick, "Ripe for Conquest," which gives a new idea of the meaning of preparedness.

"The Legal Status of Negro-White Amalgamation in the United States," by Albert E. Jenks, of the University of Minnesota ("American Journal of Sociology"), is of interest to students of institutions as well as to students of sociology.

Stanley Washburn, special correspondent of the "London Times," with the Russian armies, writes on "Russia's Contribution to the War" in the April "Review of Reviews." This country's contribution, according to Mr. Washburn, has been the keeping of the German armies employed in the East, and thus lessening the danger to Paris. The "great retreat" of January and February, 1915, was of great strategic value, not only by gaining valuable time for the Allies in the West, but opening the campaign in the Baltic provinces and dragging the German armies away from their base of supply.

Prof. Foster Watson's article on "Erasmus the Educator of Europe" ("Nineteenth Century" for March) adds little to our knowledge of the great scholar, but it is an interesting interpretation of the educational value of his work which "consists in the discrimination of the great from the small in life."

Gustavus Ohlinger has no defense for the German-American in his article on "German Propaganda in the United States" (April "Atlantic"), but doubts if the

"persistent and oftentimes intemperate propaganda" has gained converts for the German cause.

Dr. James J. Walsh discusses "Cervantes, Shakespeare and Some Historical Backgrounds" in "The Catholic World" for April.

James Baikie's "The Cradle of Civilization" in the current number of "The National Geographic Magazine" gives some remarkable illustrations of the Tigris-Euphrates valley.

Reports from The Historical Field

The journal "History," heretofore published privately in London, has been taken over by the Historical Association. The details of the new arrangements have not yet reached us. We are glad to learn that the Association will thus become possessed of an organ, and that the periodical will obtain a definite constituency.

An historical society of East and West Baton Rouge (Louisiana) was organized on Saturday, March 11. General John McGrath was chosen president; Mrs. Harriet Magruder, vice-president, and Prof. M. L. Bonham, Jr., secretary-treasurer.

"A History of Economic Doctrines," by Charles Gide and Charles Rist, has been translated from the second French edition by R. Richards (Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1915). The account begins with the Physiocrats, and then discusses in succession Adam Smith, the Pessimists (Malthus and Ricards), Sismondi, Saint-Simon, the Associative Socialists, List and the Nationalists, Proudhon, the Optimists, the Classical School (J. S. Mill), the Historical School, State Socialism, Marxism, Christian Socialists, the Hedonists, the Rent Theorists, the Solidarists, and the Anarchists.

The "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" for March, 1916, contains the following papers: "The Loyalists in West Florida and the Natchez District," by Wilbur H. Siebert; "Early Negro Deportation Projects" by Henry N. Sherwood; "Pioneer Anti-Slavery Press," by Asa E. Martin; "Recent Historical Activities in the Trans-Mississippi Southwest," by Walter L. Fleming. The documents consist of papers relating to the consular service of the United States in Latin-America.

"The Anti-Prohibition Manual for 1916" has recently been issued by the Publicity Department of the National Wholesale Liquor Dealers' Association of America, Cincinnati, O. It contains an ingenious selection of material against prohibition, including references to Washington and Lincoln, as well as a number of living statesmen.

The preparation of college students for work in the Americanization of Foreigners has occupied the attention of the officials of the United States Bureau of Education. A recent syllabus outlining "Professional Course for Service Among Immigrants" has been prepared for college use. The Bureau possesses a distinct Division of Immigrant Education. Dr. F. E. Farrington, of this Division, states:

"American colleges and universities are more and more awakening to the necessity of touching modern life on its dynamic side; of inspiring and initiating social progress, and of training leaders in the work of civic uplift. Here is a field which opens up almost limitless possibilities in the way of social service. One needs, however, a peculiar

sympathy for and a specific knowledge of the foreigner, appreciation of his limitations and his possibilities, as well as a realization of what he can contribute to our economic, ethical, and spiritual progress when properly assimilated, and what grave dangers he can also bring if we fail to imbue him with our national ideals. The fields are already ripe unto the harvest, but trained and competent laborers are few. Letters have been received at the Bureau of Education lamenting the fact that evening school classes for foreigners have been given up on account of the lack of trained principals and teachers to handle this problem.

"Upon our colleges and universities therefore, devolves the responsibility of preparing these workers, of giving them breadth of vision, and catholicity of purpose, in short of training them for their tasks."

The American Historical Association offers each year, a prize of \$200 for the best unpublished historical monograph. In the even years the prize is known as the Justin Winsor Prize, and is awarded for the best study based upon independent and original investigation in American history. In the odd years the prize is known as the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize, and is given for the best study upon European history. The details of the regulations concerning this prize may be obtained from Dr. Waldo G. Leland, secretary, the American Historical Association, 1140 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C., or from Prof. Carl R. Fish, University of Wisconsin, chairman of the Justin Winsor Prize Committee, or from Prof. Lawrence L. Larson, University of Illinois, chairman of the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize Committee.

Bulletin No. 8, 1916, of the United States Bureau of Education is entitled, "Reorganization of the Public School System," by Frank S. Parker. The report gives a sketch of the history of efforts to reform the public schools on the basis of "A Functional Reorganization" and a sketch of recent discussion is given together with a detail analysis of recent practical efforts at reorganization. This is followed by a suggestive course of study arranged in three cycles. The cycles are arranged six years, three years, three years, or six years, four years, four years. In each an effort is made to adapt the methods of teaching and the subjects taught to the psychological and physiological stage of development of the pupils. For the first cycle the work in history should be biographical with few stories, but each one organized with interesting detail, concrete imagery, simple illustration, and human feeling. Historical stories when used should be closely connected with illustrated material such as wall maps, globes, blackboard sketches, outline maps, etc. For the second and third cycle the author adopts the plan in history outlined by Mr. William J. Cooper for the Berkeley (California) High School. (See HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Vol. 6, page 328.)

At the meeting of the Jewish National Chautauqua Association in St. Louis on December 27, Dr. Abram Simon urged the study of Jewish history and Jewish literature in American universities. He pointed out that high school and university students are taught much of the literature of Greece and Rome, but the vast amount of Jewish literature since the close of the Bible remains only good for study in Jewish Sunday-schools. If Greek history or Roman literature can be taught sympathetically, why cannot a similar treatment be made of Jewish history? asked the speaker.

The Indiana Statehood Centennial, to be celebrated in 1916, has been assigned a department in the "Educator-Journal," of Indianapolis. The department is conducted by Miss Charity Dye, who has for years shown much interest

and gained great success in pageant work. The first four numbers, January-April, 1916, contain various suggestions for the presentation of pageants illustrating Indiana history.

Miss Beulah M. Garrard, of the Department of Secondary Education of the University of Wyoming, has issued an appeal in the "Wyoming School Journal," Volume 12, Number 6, to the history teachers of the State of Wyoming, asking their assistance in furnishing information concerning history teaching throughout the State. The inquiry being made includes not only a series of questions to determine the actual facts of present history teaching, but it also calls for suggestions as to how the course of study in history could, with profit, be changed. Among the latter questions are the following: "If you could teach only one year of history, what would you teach and when? What would you teach and when, in a two, three, or four-year history course? What divisions do you think should be required? Would you require American history always? If so, what would you do with pupils in this class who had had no other history? Do you think history courses should be so taught that a pupil must have had a previous course to be able to enter the next one in the course, as in mathematics or English? If so, how can this be done in the teaching, and what are you going to do if all the courses are not required? Would this mean that all the courses would have to be required as in the other subjects mentioned? If you feel the need of more time for the study of any particular fields, can you suggest methods by which more time may be had?"

Thomas F. Millard, editor of "The China Press," has a most suggestive article in the March "Century," entitled, "The Japanese Menace." In it he predicts war between Japan and the United States in the near future, brought about by Japan in order to prevent her own financial ruin.

"At present, and during the remainder of the great war, the United States is exposed more than usual to an attack by Japan. Japan, because of the war, is freed from immediate complications. . . . Japan cannot much longer bear the burden of large armaments without courting bankruptcy. If Japan is ever to challenge this nation on the crucial issues that lie between them, this to her seems to be a god-sent occasion."

The Rev. Professor Henry Browne, S.J., M.A., Oxford, etc., etc., of University College, Dublin, Ireland, has been "asked by the Educative Section of the British Association to visit the United States with a view to a report on the utility of museums for classical education." Professor Browne arrived in New York by the U. S. S. St. Paul on April 13, and, after lecturing in Columbia University on Greek music, left for Chicago and other points. He expects to be in Boston and Cambridge about May 1. The MAGAZINE hopes to print reports of Professor Browne's lectures, for if they are as helpful in putting teachers abreast of the very latest results of Homeric study, as are the successive editions of his handbook, we shall earn the gratitude of our readers by giving them the substance of the lectures.

The South Dakota School of Mines has recently received the gift of the original of the first newspaper published in Alaska, entitled, "The Sitka Times." The paper was written in long hand and was first issued on Saturday, September 19, 1868, a little less than one year after the United States came into full possession of the territory. Photographic reproductions of the paper are published in the "Pahsapa Quarterly" for April, 1916 (Rapid City, S. D.).

An interesting study of the relation of geography to early American history is shown in the brief study by T. Crockett and B. C. Wallis entitled, "North America During the Eighteenth Century; a Geographical History." (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 75 cents.)

A number of members of the graduating class in the East Carolina Teachers' Training School (Greenville, N. C.) have prepared a series of suggestions for the teaching of history in the primary grades. Among these are suggestions for dramatization, for the construction of historical material out of paper, for the organization of a pageant, and for the use of the sand table in primary history. These are printed in the "Training School Quarterly" (Greenville, N. C.), Vol. 2, pages 304 to 314.

Celebrating Washington's birthday by a dramatization of Washington's life proved an excellent patriotic and pedagogical exercise for a class in the East Carolina Teachers' Training School, Greenville, N. C. The plans for the work are described in "The Training School Quarterly," Vol. 2, page 294.

A bulky volume of nearly 1,200 pages contains the Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Fifty-third Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association and of the International Congress on Education held at Oakland, Cal., October 16 to 27, 1916, together with the papers and addresses presented at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Cincinnati, February 23 to 27, 1916. The teacher of history will note the melancholy fact that the subject of history teaching is not mentioned in the index or in the table of contents, and if it is referred to in the 1,200 pages of the report it is practically impossible for the teacher to ascertain this fact.

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BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

NIDA, STELLA H. Panama and Its Bridge of Water. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1915. Pp. 196. 50 cents.

Designed as a reader for fourth and fifth grades, this sketches the history of the Panama section of Central America from Columbus' time to the year of the creation of the Canal Zone. Then with interesting narrative and many admirable pictures and maps, the various steps in the construction of the great waterway are traced. The concluding chapter describes the nation's celebration of its achievement at the Panama-Pacific Exposition.

LAUT, AGNES C. The Canadian Commonwealth. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1915. Pp. 343. \$1.50.

This is not history, but description and prophecy. It treats especially of the problems which the people of Canada have yet to solve, those having to do with commerce, labor, immigration, utilization of natural resources, home government, relations with England, with the United States and with Japan. Its field of service is outside the range of high schools.

HARMER, F. E. Select English Historical Documents of the Ninth and Tenth Centuries. Cambridge: The University Press. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1914. Pp. viii, 142. \$1.75.

This little book contains a careful edition of twenty-three documents, giving first the text, then a translation (30 pages), next about 60 pages of notes, and finally an appendix which discusses the peculiarities of the Kentish, Mercian and Northumbrian dialects. For the history student there are frequent passages of great significance in this source-material—e.g., the sentence out of the will of Aethelred Earl of the Mercians, who married the daughter of King Alfred. "And further, I now give this estate of twelve hides at Stoke, to Cynulf, son of Ceoluht, for three lives, in return for sixty mancuses of pure gold—to be free from every due doth to king and earl and reeve, from every service small or great, except military service and the construction of fortresses and bridges and simple compensation to others, and nothing is to go out by way of *wite*." At times we wish, however, for a closer translation. *Fuguldaeg* in Document I is translated "flesh-day" instead of "fowl-day" or "bird-day," a distinction observed in our old phrase "neither fish, flesh, nor fowl." We feel also that the historical student should not lean too heavily upon the localization, as given, of dialectic peculiarities. Thus there is a different opinion of the first peculiarity noted as one of the "Chief Mercian characteristics," namely "o for a before nasals." On this point readers are referred to Richard Taxweiler's "Angelsächsische Urkundenbücher von kentischem Lokalkarakter," Berlin, 1906.

A. H. KENNEDY AND H. L. CANNON.

Stanford University.

EVANS, HOWELL T. Wales and the Wars of the Roses. Cambridge: The University Press. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915. Pp. 244. \$3.00.

This is a study based largely upon original documents and contemporary sources which have not been used extensively heretofore in a study of this period. Among these are the writings of the contemporary Welsh poets.

The author devotes the first chapter to a discussion of the value of the contemporary Welsh literature as historical material. He rejects as inaccurate some of these writings heretofore used and prefers others, though he acknowledges they are prejudiced and must be used with caution. He seems to guard himself to an excess on page 154, when he gives two incidents; one, "If we can credit contemporary poetry;" the other, "The chronicler gives more specific details, if we can trust them." He uses this Welsh literature effectively to show that the red rose was the emblem of the Lancastrians in Wales long before the battle of Bosworth. He also gives one a clear understanding of the conditions and feelings in Wales which caused them to change sides frequently out of their sense of a national feeling.

The first fourth of the book is taken up in creating a background for the history of the War of the Roses. There are three maps, seven genealogical tables, a bibliography and an index of persons and places.

C. A. SMITH.

University of Wisconsin.

HOWE, FREDERIC C. *Socialized Germany*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915. Pp. 342. \$1.50, net.

Among the many books on Germany which have been published in the last year or two, this one stands out because of its practical application to America. Everyone is impressed by German military and industrial efficiency, and by the devotion of the German people to the Fatherland. Many wonder that they are so little dissatisfied with their government and display so little individualism. Mr. Howe explains all by stating that "Germany is more intelligently organized than the rest of the world," and that "the individual German receives more from society" than elsewhere. He says the war should make it clear to us that we ought to organize our own country better, not so much in the way of military preparedness as along the line of extending the work of the State, and spreading new ideas of its obligation to bring about economic, political and educational reforms. The author deprecates the lack of democracy and the growth of militarism in Germany, but commends the beneficent side of State activity. His first four chapters are devoted to a brief historical resume, a summary of his ideas, and a description of the governmental system, showing how the Junkers are able to rule Germany. Then he gives a survey of recent economic progress in Germany.

Having given what amounts to a general introduction in about eighty pages, the author goes on to state the theories underlying State socialism and to describe the various State enterprises, including transportation facilities of all sorts, mines, forests, agricultural lands, insurance, etc. He then explains the work of the State in caring for the unemployed, providing special courts for laborers, social insurance and educational facilities of the most modern character, and in promoting the health of the people. Then follow several chapters dealing with what municipalities are doing to better conditions of life, and how they have gone into many different lines of business, even into buying and selling land needed for the future growth of the city. Mr. Howe shows that hard problems have been foreseen and efficiently met by the business men who govern the German cities. The whole book is an excellent exposition of the way the government (imperial, State, or municipal) takes charge of many of the average German's activities, and helps him while giving him little political power. It shows clearly that German "State socialism is a natural outgrowth of feudalism."

Mr. Howe has written a book that is thoroughly worth while, and should have a very wide circulation. Its lessons should be heeded. Every public library should have

a copy. It can be used by high school students to great advantage, especially in connection with "Modern European History and Economics."

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

MUZZEY, DAVID SAVILLE. *Readings in American History*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. xxvii, 594. \$1.50.

This volume is one of the series of texts and readings edited by Prof. J. H. Robinson, and compares favorably with the other volumes of the series in regard to general excellence. The material has been well selected and is arranged chapter by chapter to correspond with the author's text in American history. This arrangement, however, would not prevent its use as supplementary reading in connection with some other text.

As the author says in his preface, the work is planned "to give the student a sense of the number and variety of sources—acts of Congress, decisions of courts, proclamations and messages of presidents, records of debates, party platforms, charters, pamphlets, memoirs, diaries, letters, plays, poems, etc., that are available for the illustration of American history."

Of these various kinds of materials there are more letters than any other kind of material, followed, in point of numbers, by extracts from speeches, diaries, acts of Congress, messages, etc. These extracts include many documents which are probably not so familiar to the average teacher as well as such familiar material as Webster's Seventh of March and Bryan's Cross of Gold speeches and the diaries of John Quincy Adams and James K. Polk. Extracts from the platform of 1844, the original Liberal Republican movement, and the Progressives of 1912 are also given.

The book reflects in a way the recent tendency to give several extracts dealing with a single point. Some of this material furnishes "cumulative evidence" and other series of extracts give "conflicting or divergent views." The book does not go to the extent of the "Parallel Source Problem" series, but it does have several excellent extracts in each class of material. Most of the extracts, however, are merely for the purpose of "illustrating" American history.

The book does not have teaching helps or suggestive questions of any kind. This was doubtless left to the ingenuity of the teacher, but, to some teachers, this will be one of the few criticisms of the book. Such "helps" are real helps to a beginning teacher, and are suggestive, to say the least, to the experienced teacher.

WILSON P. SHORTBRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis, Minn.

POOLE, REGINALD LANE. *Lectures on the History of the Papal Chancery, Down to the Time of Innocent III*. Cambridge: The University Press. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915. Pp. xvi, 211. \$2.75.

The critical study of papal documents has been carried on mainly by French and German scholars, and this is the first book on the subject published in English. Dr. Poole is especially fitted for the task, and has produced a work of great value to specialists in medieval history. From his full and exact knowledge he has described the form of the documents, the methods by which they were prepared, and the extent to which they have been preserved. His preface and notes give full bibliographical references and discriminating estimates of the value of the work done by other scholars in the field. In the mass of technical details there are frequent *obiter dicta* which illuminate the general his-

tory of the papacy. The chapter on the *Ars Dictandi* incorporates the results of the latest research, and will be of interest to classical scholars.

This is not a book for the general public or for "collateral reading," but it is an indispensable guide for students. And the more conversant with the subject they become, the more they will appreciate the profound learning so modestly set forth in this work.

Princeton University.

D. C. MUNRO.

BASSETT, JOHN SPENCER. *The Life of Andrew Jackson.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xvi, 766. \$3.00.

This appeared first in 1911 in two volumes, and now is brought out in one, a more convenient form for the reader. The critical reviewers of the first edition agreed in declaring it an authoritative biography and a positive contribution to the subject, so that no careful student of Jackson's times can afford to neglect it. But very few changes have been made in this second edition, the most noteworthy being in the matter of the memorandum left by Nicholas Biddle of a conversation he had in 1829 with President Jackson. Here the change, one of punctuation, does not alter the author's original deductions from the document. Two errors of description of full page portraits of Jackson are corrected.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM FEBRUARY 26 TO MARCH 25, 1916.

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 Bolton, Herbert E., editor. *Spanish explorations in the southwest, 1542-1706.* N. Y.: Scribner. 487 pp. (bibs.). \$4.00, net.
 Bradbeer, William W. *Confederate and southern state currency.* Mt. Vernon, N. Y. [the author, 165 N. Fulton Ave.]. 162 pp. \$3.50; to libraries, \$3.00.
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 Freducci, Conte di Ottomano. *Postolan atlas, Conte di Ottomano Freducci, MCCCCXXX 7.* N. Y.: [Hispanic Soc. of Am.]. 5 p. + 4 charts. \$12.00.
 Huston, A. J., compiler. *A check list of Maine local histories.* Portland, Me.: [the compiler, 92 Exchange St.]. 44 pp. 50 cents.
 Millbury, Mass. *Centennial history of the town of Millbury, Mass. Millbury, Mass.: The Town.* 814 pp. \$3.50.
 Philhower, Charles A. *Brief history of Chatham, Morris Co., N. J.* N. Y. and Chic.: Lewis Hist. Pub. 52 pp. 75 cents.
 Riggs, Eleanor E. *An American History.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 526 pp. (bibs.) \$1.00, net.

Ancient History.

- Ashley, Roscoe L. *Early European civilization.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 708 pp. \$1.50, net.
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The War.

- American Jewish Committee. *The Jews in the eastern war zone.* N. Y.: [The Committee, 356 Second Ave.] 102 pp. Gratis.
 Atlas of the war. Maps, plans, etc. N. Y.: T. Nelson & Sons. 88 pp. 50 cents.
 Belgium and Germany. *Texts and documents.* N. Y.: T. Nelson & Sons. 132 pp. 25 cents.
 Bernstein, Eduard. *American opinions of the world war; as seen by a German.* N. Y.: Am. Asso. for Internat. Concil. 28 pp.
 Bingham, Alfred, editor. *Handbook of the European War, Vol. 2.* White Plains, N. Y.: H. W. Wilson Co. 304 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Davenport, Briggs. *A history of the great war, 1914.* N. Y.: Putnam. 545 pp. \$2.00, net.
 Fisher, Herbert A. L. *The British share in the war.* N. Y.: T. Nelson & Sons. 28 pp. 5 cents.
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 Wile, Frederick W. *The assault; Germany before the outbreak and England in war-time.* Indianapolis: Bobbs Merrill. 414 pp. \$1.50, net.

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Miscellaneous.

- American, (the) Year Book, 1915. N. Y.: Appleton. 862 pp. \$3.00, net.
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- Stephens, Kate. The mastering of Mexico. N. Y.: Macmillan. 335 pp. \$1.50, net.

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- Adams, Charles Francis. Charles Francis Adams, 1835-1915; an autobiography. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 224 pp. \$3.00, net.
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international tribunal. Balto.: Am. Soc. for Judicial Settlement of Inter. Disputes. 21 pp.

Wright, Henry C. The American City; an outline of its development and functions. Chicago: McClurg. 178 pp. 50 cents, net.

Larson's History of England

By **LAURENCE M. LARSON**, University of Illinois. 639 pages of text. (American Historical Series) \$1.40

This textbook provides about the right amount of material for a high-school course. The author has attempted especially to do two things: to make clear the connection of English history with related events and movements on the Continent; and to give an adequate account of those developments in the history of Britain that have a peculiar significance for the history of our own country. Several pages are given to the events leading up to the Great War of 1914 and to its development in its early stages.

W. A. MORRIS, University of California:—The author is remarkably successful in emphasizing essentials. The important lines of development are skilfully traced. Political narrative, often overemphasized in a book of this kind, preserves a correct balance with culture, economic life and constitutional development.

S. B. HOWE, South Side High School, Newark, N. J.:—It seems to me to be positively the best book in its line for secondary schools. Were I to give a course in English history I would desire very strongly to give it a trial.

READY IN JUNE

Fite's History of the United States

By **E. D. FITE**, Professor in Vassar College

This book is intended for high school classes. Unusual emphasis is placed on the industrial phase of history. The West Indies receive the attention which they merit in view of the increased interest which they now have for the United States. There is included a treatment of those parts of European history which are necessary to an understanding of American history. Confusion is avoided in the later chapters by a topical instead of a strictly chronological arrangement.

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